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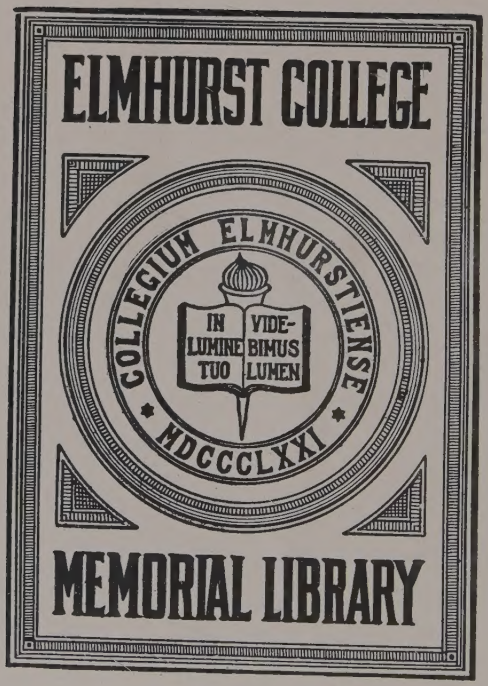
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HARPER'S ENCYCLOPAEDIA OF UNITED STATES HISTORY

FROM 458 A.D. TO 1915

NEW EDITION. ENTIRELY REVISED AND ENLARGED

BASED UPON THE PLAN OF

BENSON JOHN LOSSING, LL.D.

SOMETIME EDITOR OF "THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL RECORD" AND AUTHOR OF "THE PICTORIAL FIELD-BOOK OF THE REVOLUTION" "THE PICTORIAL FIELD-BOOK OF THE WAR OF 1812" ETC.

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Millard Fillmore

HARPER'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA

OF

UNITED STATES HISTORY

D.

Dablon, CLAUDE, Jesuit missionary; born in Dieppe, France, in 1618; began a mission to the Onondaga Indians in New York in 1655, and six years afterwards he accompanied Druillettes in an overland journey to the Hudson Bay region. In 1668 he went with Marquette to Lake Superior, and in 1670 was appointed superior of the missions of the Upper Lakes. He prepared the *Relations* concerning New France for 1671–72, and also a narrative of Marquette's journey, published in John Gilmary Shea's *Discovery and Exploration of the Mississippi Valley* (1853). He died in Quebec, Canada, Sept. 20, 1697.

Dabney, CHARLES WILLIAM, educator; born in Hampden-Sidney Va., June 19, 1855; was educated in the United States and Germany; professor of chemistry, Emory and Henry College, 1877–78, and University of North Carolina, 1880–81; director, North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station, 1880–87, and of Tennessee Station, 1887–90; president, University of Tennessee, 1887–1904, then of the University of Cincinnati. He discovered the phosphate deposits and tin ore in North Carolina, and made them known to commerce. Works: *Washington's Interest in Education; History of Agricultural Education; The Meaning of the Solid South*, etc.

Dabney, RICHARD HEATH, educator; born in Memphis, Tenn., March 29, 1860; graduated at the University of Virginia in 1881; professor of history in the University of Virginia in 1897. He is the author of *John Randolph; The Causes of the French Revolution*, etc.

Dabney, ROBERT LEWIS, clergyman; born in Louisa county, Va., March 5, 1820; graduated at the University of Virginia in 1842; ordained a Presbyterian minister in 1847; and became professor of church history in Union Seminary, Virginia, in 1853. When the Civil War broke out he entered the Confederate army as chaplain, and later became chief of staff to Gen. Thomas J. Jackson. His publications include *Life of T. J. Jackson* and *Defence of Virginia and the South.* He died in Victoria, Texas, Jan. 3, 1898.

Dabney, WALTER DAVID, lawyer; born in Albemarle county, Va., in 1853; graduated at the law department of the University of Virginia in 1875; appointed legal secretary of the United States interstate commerce commission in 1890, and, later, solicitor of the State Department. In 1895 he became professor of common and statute law in the University of Virginia. He died in Charlottesville, Va., March 12, 1899.

Dabney's Mills, Va. See HATCHER'S RUN.

Daboll, NATHAN, educator; born about 1750; wrote the *Schoolmaster's Assistant* and the *Practical Navigator*; best known for his share in the *New England Almanac*, which began in 1773. He died in Groton, Conn., March 9, 1818. His son, NATHAN (1782–1863), became widely known as the author of a famous *New Arithmetic.*

Dacres, JAMES RICHARD, naval officer; born in Suffolk, England, Aug. 22, 1788;

son of Vice-Admiral Dacres, who was a commander in the battle with Arnold on Lake Champlain in 1776. The son entered the royal navy in 1796, and, being placed in command of the frigate *Guerrière* in 1811, was sent to fight the Americans. He proudly boasted that he would "send the *Constitution* to Davy Jones's locker" when he should be so fortunate as to meet her. She had escaped him in

JAMES RICHARD DACRES.

her famous retreat, but willingly met and fought the *Guerrière* afterwards. Dacres was then captain. He attained the rank of flag-officer in 1838, and in 1845 was vice-admiral and commander-in-chief of the fleet at the Cape of Good Hope. He was presented with a gratuity from the "Patriotic Fund" at Lloyd's, in consideration of his services. He was married, in 1810, to Arabella Boyd, who died in 1828. He died in Hampshire, England, Dec. 4, 1853. See CONSTITUTION (frigate).

Dade, FRANCIS LANGHORN, military officer; born in Virginia; entered the army as third lieutenant in 1813. During the war with the Seminole Indians, while on the march to Fort King, he, with almost the entire detachment, was slain by a treacherous attack of the Indians, Dec. 28, 1835. A monument at West Point was erected to the memory of Major Dade and the men in his command, and Fort Dade, 35 miles from Tampa, Fla., is named in his honor.

Daggett, DAVID, jurist; born in Attleboro, Mass., Dec. 31, 1764; while chief-justice of Connecticut Judge Daggett, in 1833, held that the negro was a person and not a citizen, as the laws of the United States had recognized no right of any other than a free white person to acquire citizenship by naturalization. He died in New Haven, Conn., April 12, 1851.

Daggett, NAPHTALI, clergyman; born in Attleboro, Mass., Sept. 8, 1727; graduated at Yale College in 1748; ordained pastor of a Presbyterian church at Smithtown, Long Island, in 1751; and in 1755 was chosen professor of divinity at Yale, which place he held until his death, in New Haven, Conn., Nov. 25, 1780. He was an active patriot when the War of the Revolution broke out; and when the British attacked New Haven, in 1779, he took part in the resistance made by the citizens and surrounding militia. After the famous DARK DAY (*q. v.*), in 1780, he published an account of it.

Dagupan, a town in the province of Paugasinan, Luzon, Philippines, where the Lingayen River enters the gulf of the same name, on the railroad from Manila, and about 130 miles n. w. of that city. It was one of the strongholds of the Filipino insurgents and the point where most of the filibustering expeditions landed. Soon after hostilities between the United States and the insurgents opened the American military authorities desired that Dagupan should be made a base of operations, but sufficient troops were lacking till November, 1899, when an expedition left Manila for this place under command of General Wheaton. A landing from the transports, supported by a number of naval vessels, was made at Lingayen, a suburb, which has a sheltered harbor and had hastily constructed earthworks. The works and town were shelled, but there was no response from shore. As the American troops were being landed in steam launches a long line of insurgents suddenly appeared among the sand-dunes and fired upon the troops. The Americans returned the fire, completed their landing, and drove the insurgents out of Dagupan. Pop. (1903), 20,357.

Dahlgren, JOHN ADOLPH, naval officer; born in Philadelphia, Nov. 13, 1809; entered the navy in 1826, and was made rear-admiral in 1863. He was the inventor of the Dahlgren gun, which he perfected at the navy-yard at Washington, and in 1862 he was made chief of the bureau of ordnance. In July, 1863, he took command of the South Atlantic squadron, and, with the land forces of General Gillmore, captured Morris Island and Fort Wagner, and reduced Fort Sumter to a heap of ruins. He conducted a successful expedition up the St. John's River, in Florida, in 1864, and co-operated with General Sherman in the capture of Savannah. After the evacuation of Charleston he moved his vessels up to that city. Admiral Dahlgren, besides being the inventor of a cannon, introduced into the navy the highly esteemed light boat-howitzer. He was the

JOHN ADOLPH DAHLGREN.

author of several works on ordnance, which became text-books. He died in Washington, D. C., July 12, 1870.

Dahlgren, MADELEINE VINTON, author; born in Gallipolis, O., about 1835; widow of Rear-Admiral John A. Dahlgren. She established and was the vice-president for several years of the Literary Society of Washington; was opposed to woman suffrage, against which she published a weekly paper for two years, and also sent a petition bearing many signatures to Congress, requesting that women should not be given the elective franchise. Popes Pius IX. and Leo XIII. several times thanked her for the various services she had rendered to the Roman Catholic Church. Her publications include *Thoughts on Female Suffrage; Memoirs of John A. Dahlgren,* etc. She died in Washington, D. C., May 28, 1898.

Dahlgren, ULRIC, artillery officer; born in Bucks county, Pa., in 1842; son of Rear-Admiral Dahlgren. At the outbreak of the Civil War he became aide first to his father and later to General Sigel, and was Sigel's chief of artillery at the second battle of Bull Run. He distinguished himself in an attack on Fredericksburg and at the battle of Chancellorsville, and on the retreat of the Confederates from Gettysburg he led the charge into Hagerstown. He lost his life in a raid undertaken for the purpose of releasing National prisoners at Libby Prison and Belle Isle, near King and Queen's Court-house, Va., March 4, 1864.

Daillé, PIERRE, clergyman; born in France in 1649; banished because of his Huguenot faith in 1683, and removed to New York to work among the French under the Reformed Church. In 1688 the French erected their first church in Marketfield Street, between Broad and Whitehall streets; in 1692 Daillé narrowly escaped imprisonment because he had denounced the violent measures of JACOB LEISLER (*q. v.*); and in 1696 he became pastor of the School Street Church in Boston. He died in Boston, Mass., May 21, 1715.

Daiquiri, a sea-coast town in the province of Oriente, about 15 miles east of Santiago, Cuba. It was here that the American army of invasion disembarked after the declaration of war against Spain in 1898. After GEN. WILLIAM RUFUS SHAFTER (*q. v.*), commander of the expedition, had accepted the offer of the services of the Cuban troops under General Garcia, he furnished them with rations and ammunition. A number of sharp-shooters, machine-guns, and mountain artillery were landed to aid the Cubans in clearing the hills, after which 6,000 men were put ashore on June 22. The landing was difficult on account of the defective transport facilities but still the Spaniards could offer no serious opposition, as they were held in check by the Cubans and the

DAIQUIRI, WHERE THE AMERICAN ARMY OF INVASION DISEMBARKED.

shells of the American war-ships, and also by the feint of Admiral Sampson to bombard Juragua. On June 23, 6,000 more troops were landed, and a division under Maj.-Gen. HENRY W. LAWTON (*q. v.*) marched to SIBONEY (*q. v.*) in order to give place to the division of Maj.-Gen. JACOB F. KENT (*q. v.*). While General Shafter conducted the disembarkation, Maj.-Gen. Joseph Wheeler directed the operations ashore. The only losses sustained in this landing were one killed and four wounded.

Dairy Industry. As shown in the article on CATTLE (*q. v.*), there were on the farms and ranches of the United States in 1910 a total of 21,801,000 dairy cows, valued at $780,308,000. In that calendar year the exports of domestic dairy products were: Butter, 3,104,175 pounds, valued at $788,767; cheese, 2,768,681 pounds, valued at $435,629; and condensed milk, 12,687,937 pounds, valued at $994,216—total value, $2,218,612; and the imports of foreign dairy products were: Butter and its substitutes, 1,209,473 pounds, valued at $282,474; cheese and its substitutes, 43,966,873 pounds, valued at $7,563,276; and cream, 1,858,652 gallons, valued at $1,495,746—total value, $9,341,496; total trade, $11,560,108.

The Bureau of the Census, in a preliminary report on the manufacture of butter, cheese, and condensed milk in the calendar year 1909, showed 8,479 factory-system establishments, employing $71,284,000 capital, 5,056 salaried officials and clerks, and 18,431 wage-earners; paying $14,672,000 for salaries and wages and $235,546,000 for materials; and yielding products valued at $274,558,000. The latter included 624,764,653 pounds of butter, 311,126,317 of cheese, and 494,796,544 of condensed milk, in addition to which 2,381,212 pounds of butter, 49,413 of cream cheese, and 401,300 of condensed milk were produced in plants manufacturing other products. The increases in ten years were $36,303,164 in capital; $108,841,200 in cost of materials; and $130,783,349 in value of products.

Dakota, originally formed a part of Minnesota Territory. It was a portion of the great Louisiana purchase in 1803.

The Nebraska Territory was formed in 1854, and comprised a part of what became Dakota. The latter Territory was organized by act of Congress, approved March 2, 1861, and included the present States of Montana and Washington. In 1863 a part of the Territory was included in Idaho, of which the northeastern part was organized as Montana in 1864, and the southern part was transferred to Dakota. In 1868 a large area was taken from Dakota to form Wyoming Territory. The first permanent settlements of Europeans in Dakota were made in 1859, in what were then Clay, Union, and Yankton counties. The first legislature convened March 17, 1862. Emigration was limited until 1866, when settlers began to flock in, and population rapidly increased. In 1889, two States were created out of the Territory of Dakota, and admitted to the Union as NORTH DAKOTA and SOUTH DAKOTA (*qq. v.*).

Dakota Indians. See SIOUX INDIANS.

Dale, RICHARD, naval officer; born near Norfolk, Va., Nov. 6, 1756; went to sea at twelve years of age, and at nineteen commanded a merchant vessel. He was first a lieutenant in the Virginia navy,

RICHARD DALE.

as midshipman, in 1776. He was captured in 1777, and confined in Mill Prison, England, from which he escaped, but was recaptured in London and taken back. The next year he escaped, reached France, joined Paul Jones, and soon became lieutenant of the *Bon Homme Richard*, receiving a wound in the famous battle with the *Serapis*. He continued to do good

DALE'S MONUMENT.

service to the end of the war, and in 1794 was made captain. He commanded the squadron ordered to the Mediterranean in 1801, and in April, 1802, returning home, he resigned his commission. He spent the latter years of his life in ease in Philadelphia, where he died, Feb. 24, 1826. The remains of Commodore Dale were buried in Christ Church-yard, Philadelphia, and over the grave is a white marble slab with a long inscription.

Dale, SAMUEL, pioneer; born in Rockbridge county, Va., in 1772. His parents emigrated to Georgia in 1783. In 1793, after the death of his parents, he enlisted in the United States army as a scout, and subsequently became well known as "Big Sam." In 1831 he supervised the removal of the Choctaw Indians to the Indian Territory. He died in Lauderdale county, Miss., May 24, 1841.

Dale, SIR THOMAS, colonial governor; was a distinguished soldier in the Low Countries, and was knighted by King James in 1606. Appointed chief magistrate of Virginia, he administered the government on the basis of martial law; planted new settlements on the James, towards the Falls (now Richmond); and introduced salutary changes in the land

laws of the colony. He conquered the Appomattox Indians. In 1611 Sir Thomas Gates succeeded him, but he resumed the office in 1614. In 1616 he returned to England; went to Holland; and in 1619 was made commander of the East India fleet, when, near Bantam, he fought the Dutch. He died near Bantam, East Indies, early in 1620.

Dall, WILLIAM HEALEY, naturalist; born in Boston, Mass., Aug. 21, 1845; took part in the international telegraph expedition to Alaska in 1865–68; appointed assistant in the United States Coast Survey of Alaska in 1871, where he spent several years in various kinds of work, which included the geography, natural history, geology, etc., of Alaska and adjacent islands; paleontologist in the United States Geological Survey in 1884–1909; honorary curator of the United States National Museum from 1880; professor of invertebrate paleontology in the Wagner Institute of Science, Philadelphia, from 1893, etc. Among his books are *Alaska and its Resources; Tribes of the Extreme Northwest; Scientific Results of the Exploration of Alaska; Pacific Coast Pilot; Coast Pilot of Alaska,* etc.

Dallas, banking town and county-seat of Paulding county, Ga.; on the Southern Railroad; 34 miles n. w. of Atlanta. Here, during the Atlanta campaign, Sherman's advance under General Hooker was temporarily checked, May 25, 1864. Three days later Hardee attacked McPherson on the right, with great loss. The Confederates retired May 29.

Dallas, ALEXANDER JAMES, statesman; born in the island of Jamaica, June 21, 1759; left home in 1783, settled in Philadelphia, and was admitted to the bar. He soon became a practitioner in the Supreme Court of the United States. He wrote for the newspapers, and at one time was the editor of the *Columbian Magazine.* He was appointed secretary of state of Pennsylvania in 1791, and was engaged as paymaster of a force to quell the WHISKEY INSURRECTION (*q. v.*). In 1801 he was appointed United States attorney for the Eastern Department of Pennsylvania, and he held that place until called to the cabinet of Madison as Secretary of the Treasury in October, 1814. In 1815 he also performed the duties of the War Office, and was earnest in his efforts to re-establish a national bank. He resigned in November, 1816, and resumed the practice of law. He died in Trenton, N. J., Jan. 16, 1817.

Dallas, GEORGE MIFFLIN, statesman; born in Philadelphia, July 10, 1792; a son of the preceding; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1810, and admitted to the bar in 1813. He went with Mr. Gallatin to Russia as private secretary, and returned in 1814, when he assisted his father in the Treasury Department. In 1828 he was mayor of Philadelphia; United States Senator from 1832 to 1833, and declined a re-election. He was ambassador to Russia from 1837 to 1839, and Vice-President of the United States from 1845 to 1849. From 1856 to 1861 he was American minister in London. Mr. Dallas was an able lawyer and statesman. He died in Philadelphia, Dec. 31, 1864.

Dallas-Clarendon Treaty, a convention negotiated in 1856 for the adjustment of difficulties between the United States and Great Britain arising under the CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY (*q. v.*). It was rejected by the Senate.

Dallin, CYRUS EDWIN, sculptor; born in Springville, Utah, Nov. 22, 1861. He made the *Signal of Peace,* Chicago; *Pioneer Monument,* Salt Lake City; and many other statues.

Dalton, city and county-seat of Whitfield county, Ga.; on several railroads; 40 miles s. e. of Chattanooga, Tenn.; is in a coal, iron, soapstone, marble, cotton, and fruit-raising region; and is principally engaged in manufacturing. The city was strongly fortified by the Confederates under Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, who checked the advance of General Sherman until forced to evacuate by a flank movement by General McPherson, May 12, 1864. Pop. (1910), 5,324.

Daly, CHARLES PATRICK, jurist; born in New York City, Oct. 31, 1816; admitted to the bar in 1839; elected to the New York Assembly in 1843; became justice in 1844, and chief-justice of the Court of Common Pleas in 1871; president of the American Geographical Society for more than forty years. Among his writings are *History of Naturalization; First Settlement of Jews in North America; What We Know of Maps*

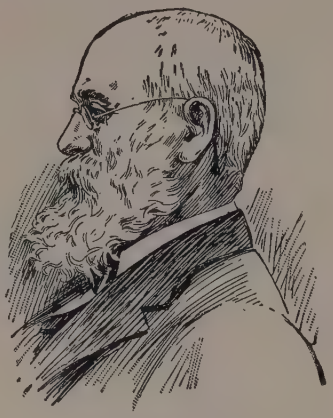
and Map-Making before the Time of Mercator, etc. He died on Long Island, N. Y., Sept. 19, 1899.

Dalzell, JAMES, military officer; was in early life a companion of Israel Putnam. He marched to the relief of the garrison of Detroit with 260 men in 1763; and on July 30, the day after his arrival, he led a sally against the Indians, in which they were badly defeated. During the struggle Dalzell was killed. The rivulet which was the scene of this defeat is known to this day as "Bloody Run."

Dalzell, ROBERT M., inventor; born near Belfast, Ireland, in 1793; was driven into exile with his family by the Irish Rebellion of 1798, and came to New York. In 1826 he settled in Rochester, N. Y., where he became a millwright. Later he invented and introduced the elevator system for handling and storing grain. He died in Rochester, N. Y., Jan. 22, 1873.

Dames of the Revolution, a patriotic organization established in the United States in 1896. The qualifications for membership are that applicants be above the age of eighteen years, of good moral standing, and descended in their own right from a military, naval, or marine officer, or official, who aided in founding American independence during the Revolutionary War. Local chapters may be formed when authorized by the board of managers of the society. The president in 1910 was Mrs. Montgomery Schuyler, and the secretary and historian Miss K. J. C. Carville; address of each, New Rochelle, N. Y.

Dana, CHARLES ANDERSON, journalist; born in Hinsdale, N. H., Aug. 8, 1819; was for a time a student in Harvard College; joined the BROOK FARM ASSOCIATION (*q. v.*) in 1842; and, after two years of editorial work in Boston, became attached to the staff of the New York *Tribune* in 1847. In 1848 he went to Europe as correspondent for several American newspapers, dealing particularly with the numerous foreign revolutions. Soon after his return to New York he became managing editor of the *Tribune*, and held the place till 1862, when he was appointed assistant Secretary of War. In 1866 he organized the stock company which bought the old New York *Sun*, of which he became editor-in-chief, continuing so till his death. In addition to his work as a journalist, in conjunction with the late George Ripley, he planned and edited the *New American*



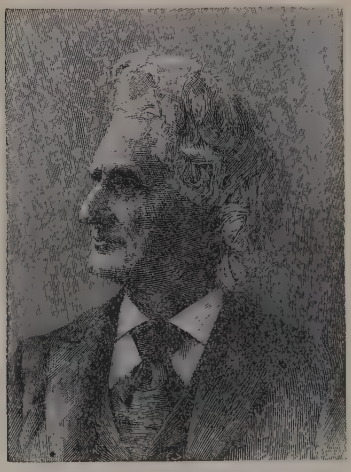
CHARLES ANDERSON DANA.

Cyclopædia (16 vols., 1857–63), which they thoroughly revised and reissued under the title of the *American Cyclopædia* (1873–76). In 1883, in association with Rossiter Johnson, he edited *Fifty Perfect Poems*, and subsequently, in association with Gen. James H. Wilson, he wrote the *Life of Ulysses S. Grant*. In 1897 his *Reminiscences of the Civil War* and *Eastern Journeys* were published posthumously; he was also the compiler of *Household Book of Poetry*. He died on Long Island, N. Y., Oct. 17, 1897.

Dana, FRANCIS, jurist; born in Charlestown, Mass., June 13, 1743; son of Richard Dana; graduated at Harvard in 1762. He was admitted to the bar in 1767; was an active patriot; a delegate to the Provincial Congress in 1774; went to England in 1775 with confidential letters to Franklin; was a member of the executive council from 1776 to 1780; member of the Continental Congress from 1776 to 1778, and again in 1784; member of the board of war, Nov. 17, 1777; and was at the head of a committee charged with the entire reorganization of the army. When Mr. Adams went on an embassy to negotiate a treaty of peace and commerce with Great Britain, Mr. Dana was secretary of the legation. At Paris,

early in 1781, he received the appointment from Congress of minister to Russia, clothed with power to make the accession of the United States to the "armed neutrality." He resided two years at St. Petersburg, and returned to Berlin in 1783. He was again in Congress in the spring of 1784, and the next year was made a justice of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts. In 1791 he was appointed chief-justice of Massachusetts, which position he held fifteen years, keeping aloof from political life, except in 1792 and 1806, when he was Presidential elector. He retired from the bench and public life in 1806, and died in Cambridge, Mass., April 25, 1811.

Dana, JAMES DWIGHT, mineralogist; born in Utica, N. Y., Feb. 12, 1813; graduated at Yale College in 1833; went to the Mediterranean in the *Delaware* as teacher of mathematics in the United States navy, and was mineralogist and geologist of Wilkes's exploring expedition, 1838–42 (see WILKES, CHARLES). For thirteen years afterwards Mr. Dana was engaged in preparing the reports of this expedition and other scientific labors. These reports were published by the government, with atlases of drawings made by



JAMES DWIGHT DANA.

Mr. Dana. He was elected to the chair of Silliman Professor of Natural History and Geology in Yale College in 1850, entered on his duties in 1855, a place he held till 1890, and was for many years associated with his brother-in-law, Benjamin Silliman, Jr., in editing and publishing the *American Journal of Science and Art*, founded by the elder Silliman in 1819. Professor Dana contributed much to scientific journals, and was a member of many learned societies at home and abroad. In 1872 the Wollaston gold medal, in charge of the London Geological Society, was conferred upon him. He died in New Haven, April 14, 1895.

Dana, NAPOLEON JACKSON TECUMSEH, military officer; born in Fort Sullivan, Eastport, Me., April 10, 1822; graduated at West Point in 1842; served in the war with Mexico; resigned in 1855; and in October, 1861, became colonel of the 1st Minnesota Volunteers. He was in the battle at BALL'S BLUFF (*q. v.*); was made brigadier-general early in 1862; was active throughout the whole campaign on the Peninsula, participating in all the battles; and at Antietam commanded a brigade, and was wounded. A few weeks later he was promoted to major-general of volunteers; was with the Army of the Gulf in 1863; commanded the 13th Army Corps awhile; had charge of the district of Vicksburg. From December, 1864, to May, 1865, he was in command of the Department of the Mississippi. He resigned in 1865, but was reappointed to the army with the rank of captain, and retired in 1894. He died in Portsmouth, N. H., July 15, 1905.

Dana, RICHARD, jurist; born in Cambridge, Mass., July 7, 1699; graduated at Harvard in 1718; and was a leader of the bar in the Revolutionary period. He was a member of the Sons of Liberty, and also a member of the committee to investigate the incidents of the Boston massacre in 1770. He died May 17, 1772.

Dana, RICHARD HENRY, poet and essayist; born in Cambridge, Mass., Nov. 15, 1787; son of Francis Dana; chose the profession of law, but his tastes led him into literary pursuits. In 1814 he and others founded the *North American Review*, of which he was sole conductor for a while. He closed his connection with it in 1820. It was while Dana was editor of the *Review* that Bryant's *Thanatopsis* was published in its pages, the author being then unknown. In 1821 the first

volume of *The Idle Man* was published. It was unprofitable, and Mr. Dana dropped it. In it he published stories and essays from his own pen. In the same year he contributed to the New York *Review* (then under the care of Mr. Bryant) his first poem of much pretension, *The Dying Raven*. In 1827 his most celebrated poetical production, *The Buccaneer*, was published, with some minor poems. After 1833 Mr. Dana wrote but little. He died in Boston, Feb. 2, 1879.

Dana, RICHARD HENRY, 2d, lawyer; born in Cambridge, Mass., Aug. 1, 1815; graduated at Harvard University in 1837; admitted to the bar in 1840; author of *Two Years Before the Mast* and many articles on legal subjects; reviser of Wheaton's *International Law;* nominated minister to Great Britain in 1876, but not confirmed by the Senate; United States counsel at the Halifax conference. He died in Rome, Italy, Jan. 7, 1882.

Danbury, a city and one of the county-seats of Fairfield county, Conn.; is the greatest hat-making city in the United States. Pop.. (1900), 16,537; (1910), 20,234.

History.—A temporary settlement was made here in 1684; a meeting-house was erected in 1696. In 1776 the place was made a depository for army stores, and when General Tryon, the British governor of New York, was informed of the fact, he headed a force of over 2,000 men, landed at Campo, between Norwalk and Fairfield, pushed on towards Danbury, reached the town unmolested (April 25) by some militia that had retired, and, not contented with destroying a large quantity of stores gathered there, they laid eighteen houses in ashes and cruelly treated some of the inhabitants. General Silliman, of the Connecticut militia, was at his home in Fairfield when the enemy landed. He immediately sent out expresses to alarm the country and call the militia to the field. The call was nobly responded to. Hearing of this gathering from a Tory scout, Tryon made a hasty retreat by way of Ridgefield, near which place he was confronted by the militia under Generals Wooster, Arnold, and Silliman. A sharp skirmish ensued, in which Wooster was killed, and Arnold had a narrow escape from capture, after his horse had been shot under him. For his gallantry on that occasion the Congress presented him with a horse richly caparisoned. Tryon spent the night in the neighborhood for his troops to rest, and early the next morning he hurried to his ships, terribly smitten on the way by the gathering militia, and at the landing by cannon-shot directed by Lieutenant-Colonel Oswald. They escaped capture only through the gallant services of some marines led by General Erskine. About sunset the fleet departed, the British having lost about 300 men, including prisoners, during the invasion. The Americans lost about 100 men. The private losses of property at Danbury amounted to about $80,000. See BOYCOTTING.

Dane, NATHAN, jurist; born at Ipswich, Mass., Dec. 27, 1752; graduated at Harvard in 1778. An able lawyer and an influential member of Congress (1785–88), he was the framer of the celebrated ordinance of 1787. He was a member of the Massachusetts legislature several years, and was engaged to revise the laws of the State (1799), and revise and publish the charters (1811) which had been granted therein. Mr. Dane was a member of the Hartford Convention (see HARTFORD) in 1814. His work entitled *A General Abridgment and Digest of American Law*, in 9 large volumes (1823–29) is a monument of his learning and industry. He founded the Dane professorship of law in Harvard University. He died in Beverly, Feb. 15, 1835.

Danenhower, JOHN WILSON, explorer; born in Chicago, Ill., Sept. 30, 1849; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1870; served on the *Vandalia* during Gen. U. S. Grant's visit to Egypt and the Levant; and was promoted lieutenant in 1879. He joined the Arctic steamer *Jeannette* as second in command in 1878. The vessel sailed from San Francisco on July 8, 1879, through Bering Straits into the Arctic Ocean, where it was held in the ice-pack for twenty-two months. From the place where the steamer was caught the crew travelled south for ninety-five days over the ice, drawing three boats with them. They then embarked, but were separated by a storm. Lieutenant Danenhower's boat reached the Lena delta, where the Tun-

guses saved the crew, Sept. 17, 1881. After making an unsuccessful search for the other boats he left Engineer GEORGE W. MELVILLE (*q. v.*) to continue the search for Lieut. GEORGE W. DE LONG (*q. v.*), and with his crew made a journey of 6,000 miles to Orenburg. He arrived in the United States in June, 1882. He published *The Narrative of the Jeannette.* He died in Annapolis, Md., April 20, 1887.

Danforth, THOMAS, colonial governor; born in Suffolk, England, in 1622; settled in New England in 1634; in 1679 was elected president of the province of Maine; and was also a judge of the Superior Court, in which capacity he strongly condemned the action of the court in the witchcraft excitement of 1692. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Nov. 5, 1699.

Dangers from Slavery. See PARKER, THEODORE.

Daniel, JOHN MONCURE, editor; born in Stafford county, Va., Oct. 24, 1825; in 1853 was appointed minister to Italy. Garibaldi requested Daniel to annex Nice to the United States, but Daniel declined on the ground that such action would be contrary to the Monroe doctrine. When the Civil War broke out Daniel hastened home and entered the Confederate army, but resigned and resumed the editorship of the Richmond *Examiner*, in which he attacked Jefferson Davis. He died in Richmond, Va., March 30, 1865.

Daniel, JOHN WARWICK, legislator; born in Lynchburg, Va., Sept. 5, 1842; served through the Civil War in the Confederate army. He was in the battles of Manassas, Boonesboro, Antietam, the Wilderness, in which last battle he was severely wounded. He was admitted to the bar in 1866; member of the Virginia legislature 1869–72, and of the Virginia Senate, 1875–81. Member of Congress in 1885–87 and of the United States Senate from 1887 till his death in Lynchburg, Va., June 29, 1910.

Daniel, PETER VIVIAN, statesman; born in Stafford county, Va., April 24, 1784; graduated at Princeton in 1805; appointed judge of the United States Circuit Court in 1836; and to the United States Supreme Court in 1841. He died in Richmond, Va., June 30, 1860.

Daniel, WILLIAM, prohibitionist; born in Somerset county, Md., Jan. 24, 1826; graduated at Dickinson College in 1848; admitted to the bar in 1851; elected to the Maryland legislature in 1853, and to the State Senate in 1857; was an ardent supporter of temperance measures, and in 1884 joined the National Prohibition party, which nominated him for Vice-President of the United States. The Prohibition ticket received about 150,000 votes. He died near Baltimore, Md., Oct. 13, 1897.

Daniels, JOSEPHUS, statesman, born in Washington, N. C., May 18, 1862; acquired an academic education; engaged in journalism; was admitted to the bar in 1885, but abandoned the law for editorial work in Raleigh, N. C.; was State printer in 1887–93; chief clerk, Department of the Interior, in 1893–95; and was appointed Secretary of the Navy, March 5, 1913.

Danish West Indies, a group of islands lying e. by s. e. of Porto Rico, and consisting of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John. St. Croix is the largest, being about 20 miles long and 5 miles wide, with an area of 110 square miles. It is generally flat, well watered, and fertile. Two-fifths of the surface is in sugar plantations, and the principal crops are sugar, cotton, coffee, indigo, and rum. The climate is unhealthful at all seasons, and hurricanes and earthquakes occur frequently. The population is about 18,000. St. Thomas is about 17 miles long by 4 miles wide. Its surface is rugged and elevated, reaching its greatest height towards the centre. The soil is sandy, and mostly uncultivated. Charlotte Amalie, which is the principal town and the seat of government for the Danish West Indies, has an excellent harbor and large trade. The population of the island is about 14,000. St. John has an area of 42 square miles. The chief exports are cattle and bay-rum, and the population is about 1,000. Negotiations with Denmark for the cession of the islands to the United States began in 1898, after the close of the war with Spain; but owing to political changes in the Danish government, no definite results were then attained. In December, 1900, Congress became favorable to the bill of Senator Lodge, advising the purchase of the islands, and negotiations to

that end were reopened. On Dec. 29, 1900, the United States offered to pay $3,240,000 for the islands; but the Danish Upper House rejected the treaty to sell, Oct. 22, 1902.

Danites, an alleged secret-order society of the Mormons, accused of various crimes in the interest of Mormonism. These are denied by the Mormons. "Dan shall be a serpent by the way, an adder in the path," Gen. xlix. 17. The members were also known as the Destroying Angels. See MORMONS.

Danvers, a town in Mass. It embraces the Salem village parish where the witchcraft excitement broke out. Pop. (1900), 8,542; (1910), 9,407.

Da Ponte, LORENZO, poet; born in Venice, March 10, 1749; emigrated to New York City, 1805; professor of Italian in Columbia College, 1826–37. He was the author of the text of the operas *Don Giovanni* and *Nozze di Figaro.* He died in New York City, August 17, 1838.

Darby, WILLIAM, geographer; born in Pennsylvania in 1775; served under General Jackson in Louisiana; and was one of the surveyors of the boundary between Canada and the United States. Among his works are *Geographical Description of Louisiana; Geography and History of Florida; View of the United States; Lectures on the Discovery of America,* etc. He died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 9, 1854.

Darbytown Road, Va., the place of three fights during the Richmond and Petersburg campaigns. The first, July 29, 1864, between Hancock's corps, under Gregg and Kautz, and the Confederates; the second, Oct. 7, when Kautz was defeated; and the third, Oct. 13, when the Nationals under Butler were defeated. General Lee claimed to have captured 1,000 Nationals.

Dare, VIRGINIA, the first child of English parents born in the New World. In 1587 John White went to Roanoke Island as governor of a colony sent out by Sir Walter Raleigh. He was accompanied by his son-in-law, William Dare, and his young wife. The new colonists determined to cultivate the friendship of the Indians. Manteo (the chief who accompanied Amidas and Barlow to England) invited the colonists to settle on his domain. White bestowed upon him the title of baron, as Lord of Roanoke—the first and last peerage ever created on the soil of the American republic. The ships returned to England for supplies, leaving behind eighty-nine men, seventeen women, and two children. Among the women was Eleanor Dare, who had given birth to a daughter, in August, 1587, to whom they gave the name of Virginia. In 1590 White returned and found Roanoke a desolation, and no trace of the colony was ever found. Strachey states that the unfortunate colonists had joined the Indians at Croatan, and lived with them until about the time of the arrival at Jamestown, when, at the instigation of Powhatan, all but seven of them were cruelly massacred.

Darien Scheme, a project conceived by William Paterson, a Scotchman, towards the close of the 17th century. He proposed to form an emporium on each side of the Isthmus of Darien or Panama for the trade of the opposite continents. The subscriptions soon ran up to $1,500,000.

Little more than half, however, was paid up. In 1698 five large vessels laden with stores, etc., and with 1,200 intending colonists, sailed for the Isthmus of Darien. The colonists fortified a secure and capacious harbor; but the merchandise they had brought was not adapted to the West Indian market; the Spaniards forbade all commerce with them; and after struggling for eight months the thirty survivors abandoned their settlement and returned to Scotland.

Darien Ship Canal, one of the great interoceanic canal projects which have attracted the attention of interested nations for many years, and, most particularly, the United States. In 1849 an Irish adventurer published a book in which he said he had crossed and recrossed the Isthmus of Darien, and that in the construction of a canal there only "3 or 4 miles of deep rock cutting" would be required. Believing this, an English company was formed for the purpose, with a capital of $75,000,000, and an engineer was sent to survey a route, who reported that the distance between "tidal effects" was only 30 miles, and the summit level only 150 feet. The governments of England, France, the United States, and New Granada joined, late in

1853, in an exploration of the best route for a canal. It was soon ascertained that the English engineer had never crossed the Isthmus at all. The summit level to which he directed the expedition was 1,000 feet above tide-water, instead of 150 feet. The expedition effected nothing.

In 1854 Lieut Isaac Strain led an American expedition for the same purpose. They followed the route pointed out by the English engineer, and, after intense suffering, returned and reported the proposed route wholly impracticable. The success of the Suez Canal revived the project, and in 1870 two expeditions were sent out by the United States government—one under Commander T. O. Selfridge, of the United States navy, to the Isthmus of Darien; and the other, under Captain Schufeldt, of the navy, to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. Three routes were surveyed by Selfridge, and he reported all three as impracticable. He reported a route by the Atrato and Napipi rivers as perfectly feasible. It would include 150 miles of river navigation and a canal less than 40 miles in extent. It would call for 3 miles of rock cutting 125 feet deep, and a tunnel of 5 miles, with a roof sufficiently high to admit the tallest-masted ships. Selfridge estimated the entire cost at $124,000,000. The whole matter was referred in 1872 to a commission to continue investigations. A French company undertook the construction of a canal between Aspinwall and Panama in 1881, under the direction of Ferdinand de Lesseps. After expending many millions, the project was temporarily abandoned in 1890. See CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY; NICARAGUA SHIP CANAL; PANAMA CANAL.

Darling, FORT, or DREWRY'S BLUFF. See RODGERS, JOHN.

Dark and Bloody Ground. Two sections of the United States have received this appellation. First it was applied to Kentucky, the great battle-field between the Northern and Southern Indians, and afterwards to the portion of that State wherein Daniel Boone and his companions were compelled to carry on a warfare with the savages. It was also applied to the valley of the Mohawk, in New York, and its vicinity, known as Tryon county, wherein the Six Nations and their Tory allies made fearful forays during the Revolution.

Dark Day. On May 12, 1780, a remarkable darkness overspread all New England, varying in intensity at different places. In some sections persons could not read common printed matter in the open air. Birds became silent and went to rest; barn-yard fowls went to roost, and cattle sought their accustomed evening resorts. Houses were lighted with candles, and nearly all out-of-door work was suspended. The obscuration began at ten o'clock in the morning and continued until night. The cause of the darkness has never been revealed. The air was unclouded.

Darke, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Philadelphia county, Pa., in 1736; served under Braddock in 1755, and was with him at his defeat; entered the patriot army at the outbreak of the Revolution as a captain; was captured at the battle of Germantown; subsequently was promoted colonel; and commanded the Hampshire and Berkeley regiments at the capture of Cornwallis in 1791. He served as lieutenant-colonel under General St. Clair, and was wounded in the battle with the Miami Indians, Nov. 4, 1791. He died in Jefferson county, Va., Nov. 26, 1801.

Darley, FELIX OCTAVIUS CARR, designer and painter; born in Philadelphia, June 23, 1822; evinced a taste for drawing at an early age, and in 1848 went to New York. He illustrated *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow; Rip Van Winkle; Courtship of Miles Standish; The Scarlet Letter; Evangeline*, etc. These works procured for him a reputation as a leader in the art of outline illustrations. He illustrated a great many books and made numerous admirable designs for bank-notes. For Cooper's works he made 500 illustrations. More than sixty of them were engraved on steel. He executed four large works ordered by Prince Napoleon while in this country. These were: *Emigrants Attacked by Indians on the Prairies; The Village Blacksmith; The Unwilling Laborer*, and *The Repose*. He illustrated several of Dickens's works, and during the Civil War delineated many characteristic scenes. Some of the more elaborate pictures on the United States government

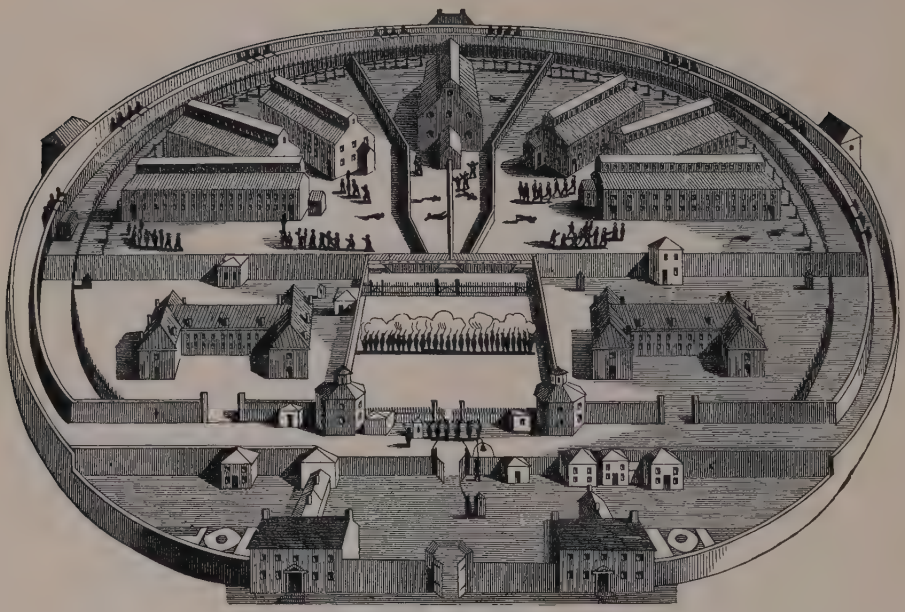
bonds were made by him; and also the beautiful design of the certificate of stock given as evidence of subscription for the Centennial Exhibition in 1876. Among his later works in book illustrations were 500 beautiful designs for Lossing's *Our Country*. Mr. Darley went to Europe near the close of the war, studied models in Rome, and returned with a portfolio full of personal sketches. He died in Claymont, Del., March 27, 1888.

Darling, HENRY, clergyman; born in Reading, Pa., Dec. 27, 1823; graduated at Amherst College in 1842; ordained to the ministry of the Presbyterian Church in 1847; published *Slavery and the War* (1863), etc. He died in Clinton, N. Y., April 20, 1891.

Darlington, WILLIAM, scientist; born of Quaker parents in Birmingham, Pa., April 28, 1782; studied medicine, languages, and botany, and went to Calcutta as surgeon of a ship. Returning in 1807, he practised medicine at West Chester with success; was a Madisonian in politics, and when the war broke out in 1812 he assisted in raising a corps for the service in his neighborhood. He was chosen major of a volunteer regiment, but did not see any active service. He was a member of Congress from 1815 to 1817 and from 1819 to 1823. In his town he founded an academy, an athenæum, and a society of natural history. Dr. Darlington was an eminent botanist, and a new and remarkable variety of the pitcher plant, found in California in 1853, was named, in his honor, *Darlingtonica California*. He wrote and published works on botany, medicine, biography, and his tory. Dr. Darlington was a member of about forty learned societies in America and Europe. He died in West Chester, Pa., April 23, 1863.

Darrah, LYDIA, heroine; place and date of birth unknown; lived in Philadelphia in 1777. One of the rooms in her house was used by the British officers, who planned to surprise Washington's army. She overheard their plans, and early in the morning of Dec. 3 left her home, ostensibly for the purpose of purchasing flour, but in reality to give warning to Washington. After a walk of several miles in the snow she met one of Washington's officers, to whom she revealed what she had overheard. Through this timely information Washington was prepared and the British expedition proved to be a failure.

Dartmoor Prison, a notable place of detention in Devonshire, England. At the close of the War of 1812–15 prisoners held by both parties were released as soon as proper arrangements for their enlargement could be made. At the conclusion of peace there were about 6,000 American captives confined in Dartmoor Prison, including 2,500 American seamen impressed by British cruisers, who had refused to fight in the British navy against their countrymen, and were there when the war began. Some had been captives ten or eleven years. The prison was situated on Dart Moor, a desolate region in Devonshire, where it had been constructed for the confinement of French prisoners of war. It comprised about 30 acres, enclosed within double walls, with seven distinct prison-houses, with enclosures. The place, at the time in question, was in charge of Capt. T. G. Shortland, with a military guard. He was accused of cruelty towards the captives. It was nearly three months after the treaty of peace was signed before they were permitted to know the fact. From that time they were in daily expectation of release. Delay caused uneasiness and impatience, and symptoms of a determination to escape soon appeared. On April 4 the prisoners demanded bread instead of hard biscuit, and refused to receive the latter. On the 6th, so reluctantly did the prisoners obey orders to retire to their quarters, that when some of them, with the appearance of mutinous intentions, not only refused to retire, but passed beyond the prescribed limits of their confinement, they were fired upon by order of Captain Shortland, for the purpose of intimidating all. The firing was followed up by the soldiers, without excuse. Five prisoners were killed and thirty-three were wounded. This act was regarded by the Americans as a wanton massacre, and when the British authorities pronounced it "justifiable" the hottest indignation was excited throughout the republic. The last survivor of the Dartmoor prisoners was Lewis P. Clover, who died in Brooklyn, Long Island, N. Y.,



DARTMOOR PRISON.

in February, 1879, at the age of eighty-nine years.

Dartmouth College, one of the highest institutions of learning in the English-American colonies; chartered in 1769. It grew out of an earlier school established by Rev. Dr. Wheelock at Lebanon, Conn., designed for the education of Indian children, he being encouraged by his success in educating a young Mohegan, Samson Occom, who became a remarkable preacher. Pupils from the Delaware tribe were received, and the school soon attracted public attention. James Moor, a farmer, gave two acres of land and a house for the use of the school, and from that time it was known as Moor's Indian Charity School. Occom accompanied Rev. N. Whittaker to England to raise funds for the increase of the usefulness of the school, and about $50,000 were subscribed. A board of trustees was organized, of which Lord Dartmouth, one of the subscribers, was elected president. The children of the New England Indians came to the school in large numbers, and Dr. Wheelock resolved to transfer it to a place nearer the heart of the Indian population in that region. He selected Hanover, on the Connecticut River, in the western part of New Hampshire, and grants of about 44,000 acres of land were made. Governor Wentworth gave it a charter (1769), under the title of Dartmouth College, so named in honor of Lord Dartmouth. The institution was removed, with the pupils, to Hanover, in 1770, where President Wheelock and all others lived in log cabins, for it was an almost untrodden wilderness. Dr. Wheelock held the presidency until his death, in 1779 (see WHEELOCK, ELEAZAR), and was succeeded by his son, John, who was sent to Europe to procure funds for the support of the college. He obtained considerable sums, and philosophical implements. In 1816 a religious controversy led to a conflict with the legislature, and the latter created a new corporation, called Dartmouth University, in which the property of the old corporation was vested. A lawsuit ensued, carried on for the college by Daniel Webster, which resulted (1819), finally, in the establishment of the inviolability of chartered rights and the restoration of the old charter. Wheelock was raised to the presidency in 1817, by the new board, but died a few months afterwards. He was succeeded by William

Allen. At the close of 1910 the college reported 117 professors and instructors, 1,229 students, 120,000 volumes in the library, 7,817 graduates, and $2,871,640 in productive funds. Ernest Fox Nichols, LL.D., was president.

Dartmouth College Decision. By an act of the legislature of New Hampshire in 1816, the name of Dartmouth College was changed to Dartmouth University, the management was changed, and the State undertook to control the affairs of the college. Daniel Webster was retained to oppose the action of the State, and the case was ultimately carried up to the United States Supreme Court, the decision of which established the inviolability of private trusts.

Darton, NELSON HORATIO, geologist; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., Dec. 17, 1865; became a chemist and later a geologist; made geological surveys for the government in many States; chief work *Catalogue of North American Geology.*

Daston, SARAH, an alleged witch; born about 1613. When eighty years old she was imprisoned in Salem as a witch, and although the practice of punishing supposed witches was meeting with public disapprobation the superstitious party clamored for her conviction. She was tried in Charlestown, Mass., in Feb., 1693, and was acquitted. Later her persecutor, Minister Parris, was driven out of Salem.

Daughter of the Confederacy. See DAVIS, VARINA ANNE JEFFERSON.

Daughters of Holland Dames, a colonial society of women incorporated for the purpose of erecting memorials to commemorate the early Dutch period of American colonial history, and to preserve and collect historical documents relating to the same. The headquarters are in New York.

Daughters of Liberty, a society of women founded in Boston in 1769, pledging themselves to refrain from buying English goods.

Daughters of the American Revolution, a society organized in Washington, D. C., Oct. 11, 1890. All women above eighteen years of age who are descended from patriots, soldiers, sailors, or civil officers who supported the cause of independence are eligible to membership. In 1910 there were 1,000 State chapters in forty-five States and Territories and in the District of Columbia, with a total membership of about 60,250.

Daughters of the Confederacy, UNITED, an organization established in Nashville, Tenn., Sept. 10, 1894. Its membership consists of the widows, wives, mothers, sisters, and lineal female descendants of the men who served in the Confederate army and navy, or who were connected in any way with the Confederate cause. The objects of the society, as declared in the constitution, are "social, literary, historical, monumental, benevolent, and honorable in every degree." In 1910 there were 1,200 chapters in the United States, North and South, with about 80,000 members.

Daughters of the King, THE, a religious society of the Protestant Episcopal Church, founded in New York City, Easter evening, 1885. It is often confused with the KING'S DAUGHTERS (*q. v.*), a society from which it differs in many respects. Its chief purposes are to aid rectors in their parish work and to extend Christianity among young women.

Daughters of the Revolution, an organization established in New York City, Aug. 20, 1891. Any woman is eligible for membership who is a lineal descendant of a military, naval, or marine officer, or of a soldier or marine or sailor in actual service under the authority of any State or colony or of the Continental Congress, or of the Congress of any of the colonies or States, or of a signer of the Declaration of Independence, or of a member of the Continental Congress, or of any colonial or State Congress, and of any other recognized official who supported the cause of American independence. State societies have been formed in a large number of States.

Davenant, SIR WILLIAM, dramatist and poet; born in Oxford, England, in 1605; son of an innkeeper, at whose house Shakespeare often stopped while on his journeys between Stratford and London, and who noticed the boy. Young Davenant left college without a degree. Showing much literary talent, he was encouraged in writing plays by persons of distinction, and on the death of Ben Jonson, in 1637, he was made poet-laureate. He adhered to the royal cause during the civil war in England, and escaped to France, where

he became a Roman Catholic. After the death of his King he projected (1651) a colony of French people in Virginia, the only American province that adhered to royalty, and, with a vessel filled with French men, women, and children, he sailed for Virginia. The ship was captured by a parliamentary cruiser, and the passengers were landed in England, where the life of Sir William was spared, it is believed, by the intervention of John Milton, the poet, who was Cromwell's Latin secretary. Sir William had a strong personal resemblance to Shakespeare, and it was currently believed that he was a natural son of the great dramatist. This idea Sir William encouraged. He died in April, 1668.

Davenport, HENRY KALLOCK, naval officer; born in Savannah, Ga., Dec. 10, 1820; joined the navy in 1838; commanded the steamer *Hetzel* in 1861–64; took part in the engagements on James River and off Roanoke Island; and was promoted captain in 1868. He died in Franzensbad, Bohemia, Aug. 18, 1872.

Davenport, JOHN, colonist; born in Coventry, England, in 1597. Educated at Oxford, he entered the ministry of the Established Church. He finally became a Non-conformist, was persecuted, and retired to Holland, where he engaged in secular teaching in a private school. He returned to London and came to America in June, 1637, where he was received with great respect. The next year he assisted in founding the New Haven colony, and was one of the chosen "seven pillars" (see NEW HAVEN). He concealed Goffe and Whalley, two of the "regicides," in his house, and by his preaching induced the people to protect them from the King's commissioners sent over to arrest them (see REGICIDES). In 1668 he was ordained minister of the first church in Boston, and left New Haven. He was the author of several controversial pamphlets, and of *A Discourse about Civil Government in a New Plantation.* He died in Boston, March 15, 1670.

David, JEAN BAPTIST, clergyman; born in France, in 1761; educated at the Diocesan Seminary of Nantes; became a priest in 1785; came to the United States in 1792; and was superintendent of missions in lower Maryland. He was the first priest in America to establish spiritual retreats for the laity. In 1806 he accepted a professorship in the College of St. Mary's; in 1810 went West and founded the St. Thomas Theological Seminary in Bardstown, Ky.; and in 1823 secured a charter from the Kentucky legislature raising the institution he had founded to the grade of a university. He died in Bardstown, Ky., in 1841.

Davidson, GEORGE, astronomer; born in Nottingham, England, May 9, 1825; came to the United States in 1832; graduated at the Central High School, Philadelphia, in 1845; engaged in geodetic field and astronomical work in the Eastern States in 1845–50, and then went to San Francisco, and became eminent in the coast survey of the Pacific; retiring after fifty years of active service in June, 1895. He then became Professor of Geography in the University of California. Of his numerous publications, *The Coast Pilot of California, Oregon, and Washington;* and *The Coast Pilot of Alaska* are universally esteemed. He died Dec. 1, 1911.

Davidson, JOHN WYNN, military officer; born in Fairfax county, Va., Aug. 18, 1824; graduated at West Point in 1845, entering the dragoons. Accompanying Kearny to California in 1846, he was in the principal battles of the war with Mexico. He was also active in New Mexico, afterwards, against the Indians. In 1861 he was made major of cavalry, and early in 1862 brigadier-general of volunteers, commanding a brigade in the Army of the Potomac. After serving in the campaign on the Peninsula, he was transferred (August, 1862) to the Department of the Mississippi, and cooperated with General Steele in the capture of Little Rock, Ark. He was brevetted major-general of volunteers in March, 1865; promoted to lieutenant-colonel, 10th Cavalry, in 1866; was Professor of Military Science in Kansas Agricultural College in 1868–71; promoted to colonel, 2d Cavalry, in 1879. He died in St. Paul, Minn., June 26, 1881.

Davidson, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Lancaster county, Pa., in 1746; was appointed major in one of the North Carolina regiments at the outbreak of the Revolution; took part in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth; commissioned brigadier-general;

and was at Cowan's Ford, N. C., Feb. 1, 1781, when the British army under Cornwallis forced a passage. During the fight General Davidson was killed.

Davie, WILLIAM RICHARDSON, military officer; born near Whitehaven, England, June 20, 1756; came to America in 1764 with his father, and settled in South Carolina with his uncle, who educated him at the College of New Jersey (where he

WILLIAM RICHARDSON DAVIE.

graduated in 1776), and adopted him as his heir. He prepared himself for the law as a profession, but became an active soldier in the Revolution in a troop of dragoons. When he was in command of the troop he annexed it to Pulaski's Legion. He fought at Stono, Hanging Rock, and Rocky Mount; and at the head of a legionary corps, with the rank of major, he opposed the advance of Cornwallis into North Carolina. After the overthrow of the American army at Camden he saved the remnant of it; and he was a most efficient commissary under General Greene in the Southern Department. He rose to great eminence as a lawyer after the war, and was a delegate to the convention that framed the national Constitution, but sickness at home compelled him to leave before the work was accomplished. In the convention of North Carolina he was its most earnest and able supporter. In 1799 he was governor of North Carolina, but was soon afterwards sent as one of the envoys to the French Directory. Very soon after his return he withdrew from public life. In March, 1813, he was appointed a major-general, but declined the service on account of bodily infirmities. He died in Camden, S. C., Nov. 8, 1820.

Daviess, JOSEPH HAMILTON, lawyer; born in Belford county, Va., March 4, 1774; famed for eccentricities and commonly known as "Jo" Daviess; was United States District Attorney in Kentucky, and prosecuted Aaron Burr for treason. Jo Daviess county in Illinois was named in his honor. He was killed at the battle of Tippecanoe, Nov. 7, 1811.

Davis, ANDREW JACKSON, spiritualist; born in Blooming Grove, Orange county, N. Y., Aug. 11, 1826. While a shoemaker's apprentice in Poughkeepsie, early in 1843, remarkable clairvoyant powers were developed in him by the manipulation of mesmeric influences by William Levingston. In March, 1844, he fell into a trance state without any previous manipulations, during which he conversed for sixteen hours, as he alleged, with invisible beings and received intimations and instructions concerning the position he was to attain. In 1845, while in this state, he dictated to Rev. William Fishbough his first and most considerable work, *The Principles of Nature, Her Divine Revelations, and a Voice to Mankind*, which embraces a wide range of subjects. He afterwards published several works, all of which he claimed to have been the production of his mind under divine illumination and the influence of disembodied spirits. Chief works: *The Great Harmonia*, in 4 volumes; *The Penetralia History and Philosophy of Evil; The Harbinger of Health; Stellar Key to the Summer Land*, and *Mental Diseases and Disorders of the Brain*. He may be considered as the pioneer of modern spiritualism. He died in Watertown, Mass., Jan. 13, 1910.

Davis, CHARLES HENRY, naval officer: born in Boston, Jan. 16, 1807; entered the naval service as midshipman in 1823: was one of the chief organizers of the expedition against Port Royal, S. C., in 1861, in which he bore a conspicuous part. For his services during the Civil War he

received the thanks of Congress and promotion to the rank of rear-admiral. In 1865 he became superintendent of the Naval Observatory at Washington. He was a recognized authority on tidal actions and published several works on that subject. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 18, 1877.

Davis, CUSHMAN KELLOGG, statesman; born in Henderson, N. Y., June 16, 1838;

CUSHMAN KELLOGG DAVIS.

graduated at the University of Michigan in 1857; studied law and began practice in Waukesha, Wis. During the Civil War he served three years in the Union army. In 1865 he removed to St. Paul, Minn. He was a member of the Minnesota legislature in 1867; United States district attorney for Minnesota in 1868–73; governor of Minnesota in 1874–75; and elected to the United States Senate in 1887, 1893, and 1899. For several years he was chairman of the Senate committee on foreign relations, and was a member of the commission to negotiate peace with Spain after the war of 1898. He published *The Law in Shakespeare.* He died in St. Paul, Nov. 27, 1900.

Davis, DAVID, jurist; born in Cecil county, Md., March 9, 1815; graduated at Kenyon College, O., 1832; admitted to the bar of Illinois in 1835; elected to the State legislature in 1834; and appointed a justice of the Supreme Court of the United States in 1862. He resigned this post to take his seat in the United States Senate on March 4, 1877, having been elected to succeed JOHN A. LOGAN (*q. v.*). In 1872 he was nominated for President by the Labor Reform party, but declined to run after the regular Democratic and Republican nominations had been made. He resigned in 1883 and retired to Bloomington, Ill., where he died June 26, 1886.

Davis, EDWIN HAMILTON, archæologist; born in Ross county, O., Jan. 22, 1811; author of (with E. G. Squier) *Ancient Monuments in the Mississippi Valley.* This was the first scientific publication of the Smithsonian Institution. He died in New York City, May 15, 1888.

Davis, GEORGE WHITEFIELD, military officer; born in Thompson, Conn., July 26, 1839; entered the Union army in 1861; became first lieutenant, 1862; and was mustered out of the service, 1866. In 1867 he was re-appointed captain. At the beginning of the war with Spain he was brigadier-general of volunteers; and in 1899 he was promoted colonel; and on the reorganization of the regular army, in 1901, was appointed brigadier-general; commanded a division in the early part of the war with Spain; in May, 1899, was appointed governor-general of Porto Rico; major-general in 1902, and retired in 1903; in 1904–05 was governor of the Panama Canal Zone.

Davis, HENRY GASSAWAY, legislator; born in Baltimore, Md., Nov. 16, 1823; received a country-school education; was an employee of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company for fourteen years; after-

MAJ.-GEN. GEORGE WHITEFIELD DAVIS.

ward engaged in banking and coal-mining in Piedmont, W. Va.; and was president of the Piedmont National Bank. In 1865 he was elected to the House of Delegates of West Virginia; was a member of the national Democratic conventions in 1868 and 1872; State Senator in 1867–69; and a United States Senator in 1871–83. He also served on the Inter-continental Railway Commission, as chairman of the American delegation to the Pan-American Congress, and was the Democratic candidate for Vice-President in 1904.

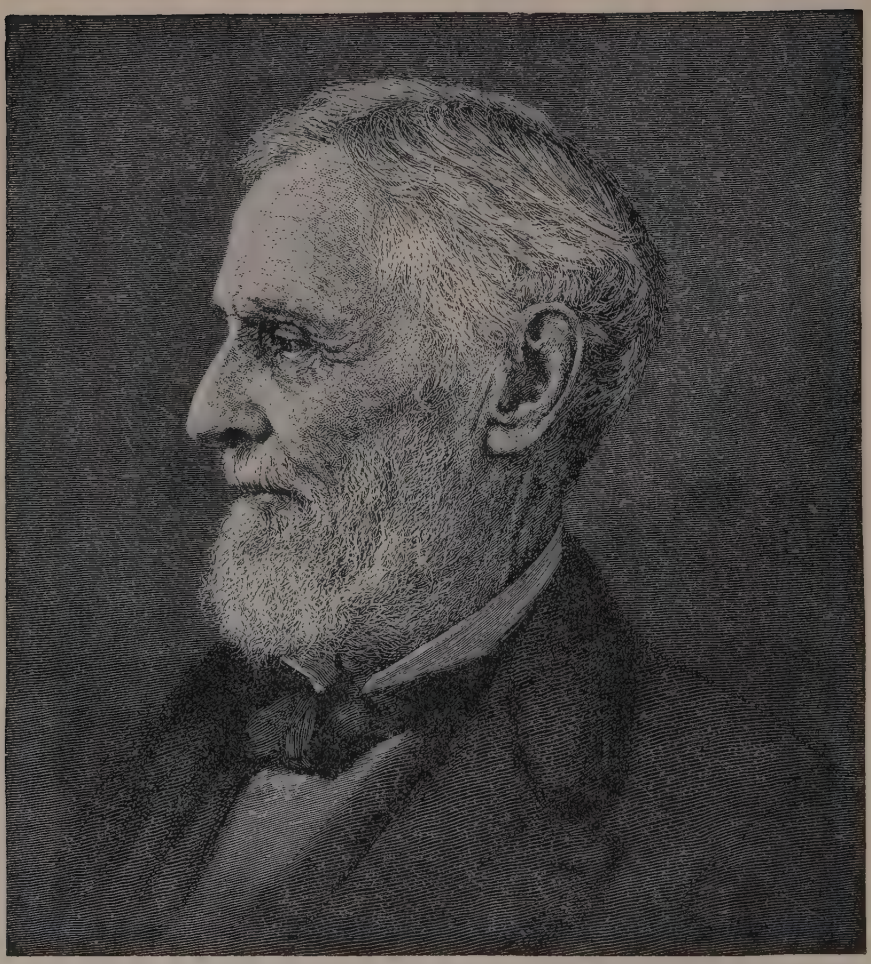
Davis, HENRY WINTER, legislator; born in Annapolis, Md., Aug. 16, 1817; graduated at Kenyon College in 1837; elected to Congress as a Whig in 1854, and at the dissolution of that party joined the American or Know-Nothing party, and was re-elected to Congress in 1858. In 1861 he announced himself in favor of an unconditional Union while a candidate for re-election. He was overwhelmingly defeated, but in 1863 was re-elected. Although representing a slave State, Senator Davis was a strong antislavery advocate. He died in Baltimore, Md., Dec. 30, 1865.

Davis, ISAAC, patriot; born in 1745; took part in the fight with the British soldiery at Concord bridge, April 19, 1775, and was killed by the first volley.

DAVIS, JEFFERSON

Davis, JEFFERSON, statesman; born in Christian county, Ky., June 3, 1808; graduated at West Point in 1828; served as lieutenant in the BLACK HAWK WAR (*q. v.*) in 1831–32, and resigned in 1835 to become a cotton-planter in Mississippi. He was a member of Congress in 1845–46, and served as colonel of a Mississippi regiment in the war with Mexico. He was United States Senator from 1847 to 1851, and from 1857 to 1861. He was called to the cabinet of President Pierce as Secretary of War in 1853, and remained four years. He resigned his seat in the Senate in January, 1861, and was chosen provisional President of the Southern Confederacy in February. In November, 1861, he was elected permanent President for six years. Early in April, 1865, he and his associates in the government fled from Richmond, first to Danville, Va., and then towards the Gulf of Mexico. He was arrested in Georgia, taken to Fort Monroe, and confined on a charge of treason for about two years, when he was released on bail, Horace Greeley's name heading the list of bondsmen for $100,000. He was never tried. He published *The Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government* (1881). He died in New Orleans, La., Dec. 6, 1889.

Mr. Davis was at his home, not far from Vicksburg, when apprised of his election as President of the Confederacy formed at Montgomery, February, 1861. He hastened to that city, and his journey was a continuous ovation. He made twenty-five speeches on the way. Members of the convention and the authorities of Montgomery met him eight miles from the city. He arrived at the Alabama capital at eight o'clock at night. Cannon thundered a welcome, and the shouts of a multitude greeted him. Formally received at the railway station, he made a speech, in which he briefly reviewed the position of the South, and said the time for compromises had passed. "We are now determined," he said, "to maintain our position, and make all who oppose us smell Southern powder and feel Southern steel. . . . We will maintain our rights and our government at all hazards. We ask nothing—we want nothing—and we will have no complications. If the other States join our Confederacy, they can freely come in on our terms. Our separation from the Union is complete, and no compromise, no reconstruction, can now be entertained." The inaugural ceremonies took place at noon, Feb. 18, on a platform erected in front of the portico of the State-house. Davis and the Vice-President elect, ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS (*q. v.*), with Rev. Dr. Marly, rode in an open barouche from the Exchange Hotel to the capitol, followed by a multitude of State officials and citizens. The oath of office was administered to Davis by Howell Cobb, president of the Congress, at the close of his inaugural address. In the evening President Davis held



JEFFERSON DAVIS.

a levee at Estelle Hall, and the city was brilliantly lighted up by bonfires and illuminations. President Davis chose for his constitutional advisers a cabinet comprising Robert Toombs, of Georgia, Secretary of State; Charles G. Memminger, of South Carolina, Secretary of the Treasury; Le Roy Pope Walker, of Alabama, Secretary of War; Stephen R. Mallory, of Florida, Secretary of the Navy, and John H. Reagan, of Texas, Postmaster-General. Afterwards, Judah P. Benjamin was made Attorney-General.

Two days after President Lincoln's call for troops, President Davis issued a proclamation, in the preamble of which he said the President of the United States had "announced the intention of invading the Confederacy with an armed force for the purpose of capturing its fortresses, and thereby subverting its independence, and subjecting the free people thereof to the dominion of a foreign power." He said it was the duty of his government to repel this threatened invasion, and "defend the rights and liberties of the people by all the means which the laws of nations and usages of civilized warfare placed at

its disposal." He invited the people of the Confederacy to engage in privateering, and he exhorted those who had "felt the wrongs of the past" from those whose enmity was "more implacable, because unprovoked," to exert themselves in preserving order and maintaining the authority of the Confederate laws. This proclamation was met by President Lincoln by a public notice that he should immediately order a blockade of all the Southern ports claimed as belonging to the Confederacy; and also that if any person, under the pretended authority of such States, or under any other pretence, should molest a vessel of the United States, or the person or cargo on board of her, such person would be held amenable to the laws of the United States for the prevention and punishment of piracy. With this opposing proclamation the great Civil War was actively begun.

In April, 1865, Mr. Davis's wife and children, and his wife's sister, had accompanied him from Danville to Washington, Ga., where, for prudential reasons, the father separated from the others. He soon learned that some Confederate soldiers, believing that the treasure that was carried away from Richmond was with Mrs. Davis, had formed a plot to seize all her trunks in search of it. He hastened to the rescue of his family and property, riding rapidly 18 miles. They were near Irwinsville, south of Macon, Ga. The tents were pitched at night, and the wearied ones retired to rest, intending to resume their flight in the morning. General Wilson, at Macon, hearing of Davis's flight towards the Gulf, had sent out Michigan and Wisconsin cavalry, whose vigilance was quickened by the offered reward of $100,000 for the arrest of the fugitive. Simultaneously, from opposite points, these two parties approached the camp of Davis and his little party just at dawn, May 11, 1865. Mistaking each other for foes, they exchanged shots with such precision that two men were killed and several wounded before the error was discovered. The sleepers were aroused. The camp was surrounded, and Davis, while attempting to escape in disguise, was captured and conveyed to General Wilson's headquarters. Davis had slept in a wrapper, and when aroused hastily pulled on his boots and went to the tent-door. He observed the National cavalry. "Then you are captured?" exclaimed his wife. In an instant she fastened the wrapper around him before he was aware, and then, bidding him adieu, urged him to go to a spring near by, where his horse and arms were. He complied, and as he was leaving the tent-door, followed by a servant with a water-bucket, his sister-in-law flung a shawl over his head. It was in this disguise that he was captured. Such is the story as told by C. E. L. Stuart, of Davis's staff. The Confederate President was taken to Fort Monroe by way of Savannah and the sea. Reagan, who was captured with Davis, and Alexander H. Stephens were sent to Fort Warren, in Boston Harbor.

JEFFERSON DAVIS'S HOME IN RICHMOND.

Inaugural Address.—The following is the text of the inaugural address, delivered at Montgomery, Ala., Feb. 18, 1861:

Gentlemen of the Congress of the Confederate States of America, Friends, and Fellow-Citizens,—Called to the difficult and responsible station of chief executive of the provisional government which you have instituted, I approach the discharge of the duties assigned me with an humble distrust of my abilities, but with a sustaining confidence in the wisdom of those who are to guide and aid me in the administration of public affairs, and an abiding faith in the virtue and patriotism of the people. Looking forward to the speedy establishment of a permanent government to take the place of this, and which by its greater moral and physical power will be better able to combat with the many difficulties which arise from the conflicting interests of separate nations, I enter upon the duties of the office to which I have been chosen with the hope that the beginning of our career as a confederacy may not be obstructed by hostile opposition to our enjoyment of the separate existence and independence which we have asserted, and which, with the blessing of Providence, we intend to maintain.

Our present condition, achieved in a manner unprecedented in the history of nations, illustrates the American idea that governments rest upon the consent of the governed, and that it is the right of the people to alter and abolish governments whenever they become destructive to the ends for which they were established. The declared compact of the Union from which we have withdrawn was to establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity; and when, in the judgment of the sovereign States now composing this Confederacy, it has been perverted from the purposes for which it was ordained, and ceased to answer the ends for which it was established, a peaceful appeal to the ballot-box declared that, as far as they were concerned, the government created by that compact should cease to exist. In this they merely asserted the right which the Declaration of Independence of 1776 defined to be inalienable. Of the time and occasion of its exercise they as sovereigns were the final judges, each for himself. The impartial, enlightened verdict of mankind will vindicate the rectitude of our conduct; and He who knows the hearts of men will judge of the sincerity with which we labored to preserve the government of our fathers in its spirit.

The right solemnly proclaimed at the birth of the States, and which has been affirmed and reaffirmed in the bills of rights of the States subsequently admitted into the Union of 1789, undeniably recognizes in the people the power to resume the authority delegated for the purposes of government. Thus the sovereign States here represented proceeded to form this Confederacy, and it is by the abuse of language that their act has been denominated revolution. They formed a new alliance, but within each State its government has remained. The rights of person and property have not been disturbed. The agent through whom they communicated with foreign nations is changed, but this does not necessarily interrupt their international relations. Sustained by the consciousness that the transition from the former Union to the present Confederacy has not proceeded from a disregard on our part of our just obligations or any failure to perform every constitutional duty, moved by no interest or passion to invade the rights of others, anxious to cultivate peace and commerce with all nations, if we may not hope to avoid war, we may at least expect that posterity will acquit us of having needlessly engaged in it. Doubly justified by the absence of wrong on our part, and by wanton aggression on the part of others, there can be no cause to doubt the courage and patriotism of the people of the Confederate States will be found equal to any measures of defence which soon their security may require.

An agricultural people, whose chief interest is the export of a commodity required in every manufacturing country, our true policy is peace, and the freest trade which our necessities will permit. It is alike our interest, and that of all those to whom we would sell and from

whom we would buy, that there should be the fewest practicable restrictions upon the interchange of commodities. There can be but little rivalry between ours and any manufacturing or navigating community, such as the Northeastern States of the American Union. It must follow, therefore, that mutual interest would invite good-will and kind offices. If, however, passion or lust of dominion should cloud the judgment or inflame the ambition of those States, we must prepare to meet the emergency and maintain by the final arbitrament of the sword the position which we have assumed among the nations of the earth.

We have entered upon a career of independence, and it must be inflexibly pursued through many years of controversy with our late associates of the Northern States. We have vainly endeavored to secure tranquillity and obtain respect for the rights to which we are entitled. As a necessity, not a choice, we have resorted to the remedy of separation, and henceforth our energies must be directed to the conduct of our own affairs, and the perpetuity of the Confederacy which we have formed. If a just perception of mutual interest shall permit us peaceably to pursue our separate political career, my most earnest desire will have been fulfilled. But if this be denied us, and the integrity of our territory and jurisdiction be assailed, it will but remain for us with firm resolve to appeal to arms and invoke the blessing of Providence on a just cause.

As a consequence of our new condition, and with a view to meet anticipated wants, it will be necessary to provide a speedy and efficient organization of the branches of the executive department having special charge of foreign intercourse, finance, military affairs, and postal service. For purposes of defence the Confederate States may, under the ordinary circumstances, rely mainly upon their militia; but it is deemed advisable in the present condition of affairs that there should be a well-instructed, disciplined army, more numerous than would usually be required on a peace establishment. I also suggest that, for the protection of our harbors and commerce on the high seas, a navy adapted to those objects will be required. These necessities have, doubtless, engaged the attention of Congress.

With a constitution differing only from that of our fathers in so far as it is explanatory of their well-known intent freed from sectional conflicts, which have interfered with the pursuit of the general welfare, it is not unreasonable to expect that the States from which we have recently parted may seek to unite their fortunes to ours, under the government which we have instituted. For this your constitution makes adequate provision, but beyond this, if I mistake not, the judgment and will of the people are, that union with the States from which they have separated is neither practicable nor desirable. To increase the power, develop the resources, and promote the happiness of the Confederacy, it is requisite there should be so much homogeneity that the welfare of every portion would be the aim of the whole. Where this does not exist, antagonisms are engendered which must and should result in separation.

Actuated solely by a desire to preserve our own rights, and to promote our own welfare, the separation of the Confederate States has been marked by no aggression upon others, and followed by no domestic convulsion. Our industrial pursuits have received no check, the cultivation of our fields progresses as heretofore, and even should we be involved in war, there would be no considerable diminution in the production of the staples which have constituted our exports, in which the commercial world has an interest scarcely less than our own. This common interest of producer and consumer can only be intercepted by an exterior force which should obstruct its transmission to foreign markets, a course of conduct which would be detrimental to manufacturing and commercial interests abroad.

Should reason guide the action of the government from which we have separated, a policy so detrimental to the civilized world, the Northern States included, could not be dictated by even a stronger desire to inflict injury upon us; but if it be otherwise, a terrible responsibility will rest upon it, and the suffering of millions will bear testimony to the folly and wickedness of our aggressors. In the mean

time there will remain to us, besides the ordinary remedies before suggested, the well-known resources for retaliation upon the commerce of an enemy.

Experience in public stations of a subordinate grade to this which your kindness had conferred has taught me that care and toil and disappointments are the price of official elevation. You will see many errors to forgive, many deficiencies to tolerate, but you shall not find in me either want of zeal or fidelity to the cause that is to me the highest in hope and of most enduring affection. Your generosity has bestowed upon me an undeserved distinction, one which I neither sought nor desired. Upon the continuance of that sentiment, and upon your wisdom and patriotism, I rely to direct and support me in the performance of the duties required at my hands.

We have changed the constituent parts but not the system of our government. The Constitution formed by our fathers is that of these Confederate States. In their exposition of it, and in the judicial construction it has received, we have a light which reveals its true meaning. Thus instructed as to the just interpretation of that instrument, and ever remembering that all offices are but trusts held for the people, and that delegated powers are to be strictly construed, I will hope by due diligence in the performance of my duties, though I may disappoint your expectation, yet to retain, when retiring, something of the good-will and confidence which will welcome my entrance into office.

It is joyous in the midst of perilous times to look around upon a people united in heart, when one purpose of high resolve animates and actuates the whole, where the sacrifices to be made are not weighed in the balance, against honor, right, liberty, and equality. Obstacles may retard, but they cannot long prevent the progress of a movement sanctioned by its justice and sustained by a virtuous people. Reverently let us invoke the God of our fathers to guide and protect us in our efforts to perpetuate the principles which by His blessing they were able to vindicate, establish, and transmit to their posterity; and with a continuance of His favor, ever gratefully acknowledged, we may hopefully look forward to success, to peace, to prosperity.

Davis, JEFFERSON C., military officer; born in Clarke county, Ind., March 2, 1828; served in the war with Mexico; was made lieutenant in 1852; and was one of the garrison of Fort Sumter during the bombardment in April, 1861. The same year he was made captain, and became colonel of an Indiana regiment of volunteers. In December he was promoted to brigadier-general of volunteers, and commanded a division in the battle of Pea Ridge early in 1862. He participated in the battle of Corinth in 1862; commanded a division in the battles of Stone River or Murfreesboro, and Chickamauga in 1862–63; and in 1864 commanded the 14th Army Corps in the Atlanta campaign and in the March through Georgia and the Carolinas. He was brevetted major-general in 1865, and the next year was commissioned colonel of the 23d Infantry. He was afterwards on the Pacific coast; commanded troops in Alaska; and also commanded the forces that subdued the Modocs, after the murder of GEN. EDWARD R. S. CANBY (*q. v.*), in 1873. He died in Chicago, Ill., Nov. 30, 1879.

JEFFERSON C. DAVIS.

Davis, JOHN, jurist; born in Plymouth, Mass., Jan. 25, 1761; graduated at Harvard College in 1781; admitted to the bar and began practice at Plymouth in 1786. He was the last surviving member

of the convention that adopted the Federal Constitution; comptroller of the United States Treasury in 1795–96; and eminent for his knowledge of the history of New England. In 1813 he made an address on the *Landing of the Pilgrims* before the Massachusetts Historical Society, over which he presided from 1818 until 1843. His publications include an edition of Morton's *New England Memorial*, with many important notes; *Eulogy on George Washington;* and *An Attempt to Explain the Inscription on Dighton Rock*. He died in Boston, Mass., Jan. 14, 1847.

Davis, JOHN, statesman; born in Northboro, Mass., Jan. 13, 1787; graduated at Yale in 1812; admitted to the bar in 1815; member of Congress in 1824–34, during which time he opposed Henry Clay; and was elected to the United States Senate in 1835, and resigned in 1841 to become governor of Massachusetts. He was a strong antagonist of Jackson and Van Buren, and was re-elected to the United States Senate in 1845, but declined to serve. He protested strongly against the war with Mexico. He died in Worcester, Mass., April 19, 1854.

Davis, JOHN CHANDLER BANCROFT, statesman; born in Worcester, Mass., Dec. 29, 1822; graduated at Harvard in 1840; appointed secretary of the United States legation in London in 1849; and assistant Secretary of State in 1869, which post he resigned in 1871 to represent the United States at the Geneva court of arbitration on the *Alabama* claims. He was appointed United States minister to Germany in 1874, judge of the United States court of claims in 1878, and was the reporter of the United States Supreme Court in 1883–1902. He was author of *The Case of the United States Laid before the Tribunal of Arbitration at Geneva; Treaties of the United States*. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 27, 1907.

Davis, JOHN LEE, naval officer; born in Carlisle, Ind., Sept. 3, 1825; joined the navy in 1841; served with the Gulf blockading squadron in 1861; on Oct. 12 of that year took part in the action with the Confederate ram *Manassas*, and in that with the fleet near Pilot Town. During the remainder of the war he was active in other engagements. He was promoted rear-admiral, and retired in November, 1886. He died in Washington, March 12, 1889.

Davis, JOHN W., statesman; born in Cumberland county, Pa., July 17, 1799; graduated at the Baltimore Medical College in 1821; settled in Carlisle, Ind., in 1823; member of Congress in 1835–37, 1839–41, and 1843–47; speaker of the House of Representatives during his last term; United States commissioner to China in 1848–50; and governor of Oregon in 1853–54. He was president of the convention in 1852 which nominated Franklin Pierce for President. He died in Carlisle, Ind., Aug. 22, 1859.

Davis, NOAH, jurist; born in Haverhill, N. H., Sept. 10, 1818; justice of the New York Supreme Court, 1857; member of Congress, 1869–70; United States district attorney, 1870; again elected to the New York Supreme Court, 1872. He presided at the trial of Stokes for the murder of Jim Fiske and at the trial of William M. Tweed. He retired in 1887, and died in New York City, March 20, 1902.

Davis, RICHARD HARDING, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., April 18, 1864; son of Rebecca Harding Davis; educated at Lehigh University and Johns Hopkins University. He was a war correspondent in Cuba in 1898, and in South Africa in 1900. His publications include *Our English Cousins; Three Gringoes in Venezuela and Central America; Cuba in War Times; Cuban and Porto Rican Campaigns*, etc.

Davis, VARIA ANNE JEFFERSON, author; second daughter of Jefferson Davis; born in Richmond, Va., June 27, 1864; known popularly in the South as "the Daughter of the Confederacy." Her childhood was mostly spent abroad. Her works include *An Irish Knight of the Nineteenth Century; Sketch of the Life of Robert Emmet; The Veiled Doctor; Foreign Education for American Girls*. She died at Narragansett Pier, R. I., Sept. 18, 1898.

Dawes, ANNA LAURENS, author; daughter of Henry L. Dawes; born in North Adams, Mass., May 14, 1851; works include *How We are Governed; The Modern Jew: His Present and Future; Biography of Charles Sumner*, etc.

Dawes, HENRY LAURENS, statesman; born in Cummington, Mass., Oct. 30, 1816;

graduated at Yale in 1839; admitted to the bar in 1842; served in the State legislature in 1848–50, and in the State Senate in 1850–52; member of Congress in 1857–73, and of the United States Senate in 1875–93; and then became chairman of the commission of the five civilized tribes. He was author of many tariff measures, and to him was due the introduction of the *Weather Bulletin* in 1869. He died in Pittsfield, Mass., Feb. 5, 1903.

Dawes, WILLIAM, patriot. On April 18, 1775, he accompanied Paul Revere, riding through Roxbury, while Revere went by way of Charlestown. On the following day, when Adams and Hancock received the message from Warren, Revere, Dawes, and Samuel Prescott rode forward, arousing the inhabitants. They were surprised by a number of British at Lincoln, and both Dawes and Revere were captured, Prescott making good his escape to Concord.

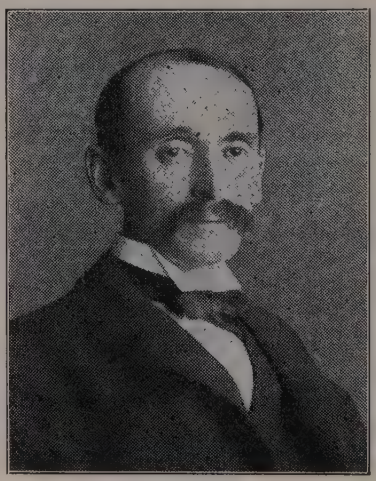
Dawson City, on the Klondike River in Alaska; reached by the CHILKOOT PASS (*q. v.*); 575 miles from Juneau, the point from which most of the gold-seekers start. It was founded by Joseph Ladue, a miner, who built the first house there, Sept. 1, 1896, and grew rapidly, its population reaching 25,000 within five years.

Dawson, HENRY BARTON, author; born in Lincolnshire, England, June 8, 1821; came to New York with his parents in 1834. He was the author of *Battles of the United States by Sea and Land; Recollections of the Jersey Prison-ship; Westchester County in the Revolution,* etc. For many years he was editor of the *Historical Magazine.* He died in 1889.

Day. See STANDARD TIME.

Day, or **Daye,** STEPHEN, the first printer in the English-American colonies; born in London in 1611; went to Massachusetts in 1638, and was employed to manage the printing-press sent out by Rev. Mr. Glover. He began printing at Cambridge in March, 1639. He was not a skilful workman, and was succeeded in the management, about 1648, by Samuel Green, who employed Day as a journeyman. He died at Cambridge, Mass., Dec. 22, 1668.

Day, WILLIAM RUFUS, statesman; born in Ravenna, O., April 17, 1849; graduated at the University of Michigan in 1870; studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1872; began practice at Canton, O.; served as judge in the court of common pleas in 1886–90; appointed judge of the United States district court for the northern district of Ohio in 1889, but resigned before taking office on ac-



WILLIAM RUFUS DAY.

count of ill health. In March, 1897, he was made assistant Secretary of State, and on April 26, 1898, succeeded John Sherman as head of the department. While in the State Department he had charge, under the President, of the delicate diplomatic correspondence preceding and during the war with Spain, and of the negotiation of the protocol of peace. After the latter had been accepted Judge Day was appointed chief of the United States peace commission, his place as Secretary of State being filled by John Hay, American ambassador to Great Britain. Judge Day was appointed judge of the United States Circuit Court for the sixth judicial circuit, Feb. 25, 1899, and an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court in February, 1903.

Dayton, ELIAS, military officer; born in Elizabethtown, N. J., in July, 1737; fought with the Jersey Blues under Wolfe at Quebec; was member of the committee of safety at the beginning of the Revolution, and became colonel of the 3d New Jersey Regiment. He served in New

York and New Jersey; fought in several battles, the last at Yorktown, and in January, 1783, was made a brigadier-general. He was a member of Congress in 1787–88, and was afterwards in the New Jersey legislature. He died in Elizabethtown, July 17, 1807.

Dayton, JONATHAN, statesman; born in Elizabethtown, N. J., Oct. 16, 1760; son of Elias; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1776; entered the army as paymaster of his father's regiment in August; aided in storming a redoubt at Yorktown, which was taken by Lafayette; and served faithfully until the close of the war. He was a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution in 1787, and was a representative in Congress from 1791 to 1799. He was speaker in 1795, and was made United States Senator in 1799. He held the seat until 1805. He served in both branches of his State legislature. Suspected of complicity in Burr's conspiracy, he was arrested, but was never prosecuted. He died in Elizabethtown, Oct. 9, 1824.

Dayton, WILLIAM LEWIS, statesman; born in Baskinridge, N. J., Feb. 17, 1807; graduated at Princeton College in 1825; studied at the famous law school in Litchfield, Conn., and was admitted to the bar in 1830; became associate judge of the Supreme Court of New Jersey in 1838, and entered the United States Senate in 1842. In 1856 he was the candidate of the newly formed Republican party for Vice-President. From 1857 to 1861 he was attorney-general of New Jersey, and in the latter year was appointed minister to France, where he remained till his death, Dec. 1, 1864.

Deaf Mutes, EDUCATION OF. As early as 1793 Dr. W. Thornton published an essay in Philadelphia on *Teaching the Dumb to Speak,* but no attempt was made to establish a school for the purpose here until 1811, when the effort was unsuccessful. A school for the instruction of the silent that proved successful was opened in Hartford, Conn., by REV. THOMAS H. GALLAUDET, (*q. v.*) in 1817, and was chartered under the name of the "New England Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb." Congress granted for its support a township of land in Alabama, the proceeds of which formed a fund of about $340,000. A national deaf-mute college was established at Washington in 1864. In 1876 there were about 4,400 pupils in these institutions. Since then provision has been made by all the States and Territories for the education of this class of defectives at the public charge; many cities have established special schools for them; and private charity has similarly come to their aid. In 1910 there were 57 State institutions for deaf mutes, having an aggregate of 1,220 instructors; 10,886 pupils; grounds and buildings valued at $13,501,715, and scientific apparatus, $363,825; productive funds, $2,249,921; volumes in the libraries, 132,981; and an expenditure for all purposes of $3,353,622. The public day schools, under municipalities, numbered 53, and had 173 instructors and 1,319 pupils; and there were 17 private day schools, with 96 instructors and 566 pupils. Thus, there were nearly 13,000 youth receiving instruction in the various institutions.

Dean, JOHN WARD, historian; born in Wiscasset, Me., March 13, 1815; became librarian of the New England Historical Genealogical Society, and edited nine volumes of its *Register.* He has also written *Memoir of Nathaniel Ward; Michael Wigglesworth; Story of the Embarkation of Cromwell and his Friends for New England,* etc. He died in Medford, Mass., Jan. 22, 1902.

Deane, CHARLES, historian; born in Biddeford, Me., Nov. 10, 1813; became a member of the chief historical societies of the country; author of *Some Notices of Samuel Gorton; First Plymouth Patent; Bibliography of Governor Hutchinson's Publications; Wingfield's Discourse of Virginia; Smith's True Relation;* and editor of *Bradford's History of Plymouth Plantation,* etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Nov. 13, 1889.

Deane, JAMES, missionary to the Six Nations; born in Groton, Conn., Aug. 20, 1748; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1773. From the age of twelve years he was with a missionary in the Oneida tribe of Indians, and mastered their language. After his graduation he went as a missionary to the Caughnawagas and St. Francis tribes for two years; and when the Revolution broke out Congress employed him to conciliate the

tribes along the northern frontier. He was made Indian agent and interpreter at Fort Stanwix with the rank of major. He was many years a judge in Oneida county, and twice a member of the New York Assembly. Mr. Deane wrote an Indian mythology. He died in Westmoreland, N. Y., Sept. 10, 1823.

Deane, SILAS, diplomatist; born in Groton, Conn., Dec. 24, 1737; graduated at Yale College in 1758; became a merchant in Wethersfield, Conn.; and was a delegate to the first Continental

SILAS DEANE.

Congress. He was very active in Congress, in 1775, in fitting out a naval force for the colonies, and in the spring of 1776 was sent to France as a secret political and financial agent, with authority to operate in Holland and elsewhere. He was to ascertain the feeling of the French government towards the revolted colonies and Great Britain, and to obtain military supplies. Mr. Deane went in the character of a Bermuda merchant; and, the better to cover his designs, he did not take any considerable sum of money or bills of exchange with him for his support. The secret committee was to send them after him by way of London, to arrive in Paris nearly as soon as himself, lest a capture should betray his secret. On his arrival in Paris he sought an interview with the Count de Vergennes, the minister for foreign affairs, but no notice was taken of him. He repeated his application in vain. His remittances were all captured or lost. He soon expended the cash he took with him, and was in great distress. His landlady became importunate, and he was threatened with ejectment into the street. He again repeated his application for an interview with Vergennes, but was denied.

Which way to turn he knew not. He walked in the fields in the suburbs in despair. There he met a citizen to whom he revealed his distressed condition. The citizen invited him to make his house his home until remittances should arrive. Losing hope of either funds or an interview with the minister, he resolved to return to America, and was actually packing his wardrobe when two letters reached him, announcing the Declaration of Independence by Congress and the action of Arnold with the British fleet on Lake Champlain. Two hours later he received a card from Vergennes, requesting his company immediately. Deane, indignant at the treatment he had received, refused to go. The next morning, as he was rising from his bed, an under-secretary called, inviting him to breakfast with the count. He again refused; but, on the secretary's pressing him to go, he consented, and was received very cordially by Vergennes. A long conversation on American affairs took place, when Deane acquainted the minister with the nature of his mission. So began the diplomatic relations between France and the United States which resulted in the negotiation of a treaty of amity and alliance between the two nations.

To him were intrusted the receipts and expenditures of money by the commissioners to Europe. Dr. Franklin had deserved confidence in his ability and honesty. The jealous, querulous ARTHUR LEE (*q. v.*), who became associated with him and Franklin, soon made trouble. He wrote letters to his brother in Congress (Richard Henry Lee), in which he made many insinuations against the probity of both his colleagues. Ralph Izard, commissioner to the Tuscan Court, offended because he was not consulted about the treaty with France, had written home similar letters; and William Carmichael, a secretary of the commissioners, who had returned to America, insinuated in Congress that Deane had appropriated the public money to his own use. Deane was recalled, by order of Congress, Nov. 21.

1777; arrived at Philadelphia Aug. 10, 1778; and on the 13th reported to Congress. In that body he found false reports operating against him; and finally, exasperated by the treatment which he received at their hands, he engaged in a controversy with influential members. Out of this affair sprang two violent parties, Robert Morris and other members of Congress who were commercial experts taking the side of Deane, and Richard Henry Lee, then chairman of the committee on foreign affairs, being against him.

Deane published in the Philadelphia *Gazette* an "Address to the People of the United States," in which he referred to the brothers Lee with much severity, and claimed for himself the credit of obtaining supplies from France through Beaumarchais. THOMAS PAINE (*q. v.*), then secretary of the committee on foreign affairs, replied to Deane (Jan. 2, 1779), availing himself of public documents in his charge. In that reply he declared that the arrangement had been made by Arthur Lee, in London, and revealed the secret that the supplies, though nominally furnished by a commercial house, really came from the French government. This statement called out loud complaints from the French minister (Gerard), for it exposed the duplicity of his government, and to soothe the feelings of their allies, Congress, by resolution, expressly denied that any gratuity had been received from the French Court previous to the treaty of alliance. This resolution gave Beaumarchais a valid claim upon Congress for payment for supplies which he, under the firm name of Hortales & Co., had sent to America (see BEAUMARCHAIS, PIERRE AUGUSTIN). Paine's indiscretion cost him his place. He was compelled to resign his secretaryship. The discussion among the diplomatic agents soon led to the recall of all of them excepting Dr. Franklin, who remained sole minister at the French Court. Deane, who was undoubtedly an able, honest man, preferred claims for services and private expenditures abroad, but, under the malign influence of the Lees, he was treated with neglect and fairly driven into poverty and exile, and died in Deal, England, Aug. 23, 1789. In 1842 Deane's long-disputed claim was adjusted by Congress, a large sum being paid over to his heirs.

Dearborn, FORT. See CHICAGO.

Dearborn, HENRY, military officer; born in Northampton, N. H., Feb. 23, 1751; became a physician, and employed his leisure time in the study of military science. At the head of sixty volunteers he hastened to Cambridge on the day after the affair at Lexington, a distance of 65 miles. He was appointed a captain in Stark's regiment, participated in the battle of Bunker Hill, and in September following (1775) accompanied Arnold in his expedition to Quebec. He participated in the siege of Quebec, and was made prisoner, but was paroled in May, 1776, when he became major of Scammel's New Hampshire regiment. He was in the battles of Stillwater and Saratoga in the fall of 1777, and led the troops in those engagements—in the latter as lieutenant-colonel. He was in the battle of Monmouth, was in Sullivan's campaign against the Indians in 1779, and in 1781 was attached to Washington's staff as deputy quartermaster-general, with the rank of colonel. In that capacity he served in the siege of Yorktown. In 1784 he settled in Maine, and became general of militia. He was marshal of Maine, by the appointment of Washington, in 1789, member of Congress from 1793 to 1797, and was Secretary of War under Jefferson from 1801 to 1809. From 1809 till 1812 he was collector of the port of Boston, when he was appointed senior major-general in the United States army, and commander-in-chief of the Northern Department. On Sept. 1, 1812, General Bloomfield had collected about 8,000 men—regulars, volunteers, and militia—at Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, besides some small advanced parties at Chazy and Champlain. On the arrival of General Dearborn, he assumed direct command of all the troops, and on Nov. 16 he moved towards the Canada line with 3,000 regulars and 2,000 militia. He moved on to the La Colle, a small tributary of the Sorel, where he was met by a considerable force of mixed British and Canadian troops and Indians, under Lieutenant-Colonel De Salaberry, an active British commander. Just at dawn,

on the morning of the 20th Col. Zebulon M. Pike crossed the La Colle and surrounded a blockhouse. Some New York militia approaching were mistaken in the dim light for British soldiers. Pike's men opened fire upon them and for nearly half an hour a sharp conflict was maintained. When they discovered their mistake they found De Salaberry approaching with an overwhelming force. These were fiercely attacked, but the Americans were soon forced to retreat so precipitately that they left five of their number dead and five wounded on the field. The army, disheartened, returned to Plattsburg. Dearborn was superseded July 6, 1813, in consequence of being charged with political intrigue. He asked in vain for a court of inquiry. In 1822–24 he was the American minister in Portugal. He died in Roxbury, near Boston, June 6, 1829.

Dearing, JAMES, soldier; born in Campbell county, Va., April 25, 1840; graduated at Hanover Academy; became a cadet at West Point, but at the outbreak of the Civil War resigned to join the Confederate army, in which he gained the rank of brigadier-general. He took part in the principal engagements between the Army of the Potomac and the Army of Northern Virginia, and was mortally wounded in an encounter with Brig.-Gen. Theodore Read, of the National army. The two generals met on opposite sides of the Appomattox in April, 1865, and in a pistol fight Read was shot dead and Dearing was so severely wounded that he died soon afterwards in Lynchburg, Va.

Death Penalty. See CAPITAL PUNISHMENT; LIVINGSTON, EDWARD.

Death Valley, a narrow valley between the Panamint and Funeral Mountains, in California; traversed by the Amargosa River, usually a dry channel. The level of the valley is covered with salt, supposed to have been brought by the torrents from the surrounding desert and left on the evaporation of the water. Death Valley is considered to be the hottest and dryest place in the United States. A temperature of 122° F. has been observed here. In 1849 a party of emigrants perished here, hence the name.

Deatonsville, Va. See SAILORS' CREEK.

De Bow, JAMES DUNWOODY BROWNSON, journalist; born in Charleston, S. C., July 10, 1820; became editor of the *Southern Quarterly Review* in 1844, but withdrew the next year and established *De Bow's Commercial Review* in New Orleans, which was successful until the Civil War. After the war it was resumed in New York City, and subsequently in Nashville, Tenn. He died in Elizabeth, N. J., Feb. 22, 1867.

Debs, EUGENE VICTOR, labor leader; born in Terre Haute, Ind., Nov. 5, 1855; grand secretary and treasurer of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen in 1880–93; president of the American Railway Union in 1893–97; and in June of the latter year was made chairman of the national council of the Social Democracy of America. When president of the American Railway Union he conducted a strike on the Great Northern Railway, and in 1894 directed another on the Western railroads, for which he was charged with conspiracy, but was acquitted, and subsequently, in 1895, served a sentence of six months' imprisonment for contempt of court in violating its injunction. In 1896 he lectured on *The Relations of the Church to Labor*, and in 1900, 1904, and 1908 was the candidate of the national Socialist party for President.

Debt, National. The various changes in the outstanding principal of the national debt for each year in the period of 1793–1910 are shown below:

PRINCIPAL OF THE NATIONAL DEBT.

1793	Jan.	1	$80,352,634.04
1794	"		78,427,404.77
1795	"		80,747,587.39
1796	"		83,762,172.07
1797	"		82,064,479.33
1798	"		79,228,529.12
1799	"		78,408,669.77
1800	"		82,976,294.35
1801	"		83,038,050.80
1802	"		86,712,632.25
1803	"		77,054,686.30
1804	"		86,427,120.88
1805	"		82,312,150.50
1806	"		75,723,270.66
1807	"		69,218,398.64
1808	"		65,196,317.97
1809	"		57,023,192.09
1810	"		53,173,217.52
1811	"		48,005,587.76

PRINCIPAL OF THE NATIONAL DEBT.—*Con.*

1812	Jan. 1	$45,209,737.90
1813	"	55,962,827.57
1814	"	81,487,846.24
1815	"	99,833,660.15
1816	"	127,334,933.74
1817	"	123,491,965.16
1818	"	103,466,633.83
1819	"	95,529,648.28
1820	"	91,015,566.15
1821	"	89,987,427.66
1822	"	93,546,676.98
1823	"	90,875,877.28
1824	"	90,269,777.77
1825	"	83,788,432.71
1826	"	81,054,059.99
1827	"	73,987,357.20
1828	"	67,475,043.87
1829	"	58,421,413.67
1830	"	48,565,406.50
1831	"	39,123,191.68
1832	"	24,322,235.18
1833	"	7,001,698.83
1834	"	4,760,082.08
1835	"	37,513.05
1836	"	336,957.83
1837	"	3,308,124.07
1838	"	10,434,221.14
1839	"	3,573,343.82
1840	"	5,250,875.54
1841	"	13,594,480.73
1842	"	26,601,226.28
1843	July 1	32,742,922.00
1844	"	23,461,652.50
1845	"	15,925,303.01
1846	"	15,550,202.97
1847	"	38,826,534.77
1848	"	47,044,862.23
1849	"	63,061,858.69
1850	"	63,452,773.55
1851	"	68,304,796.02
1852	"	66,199,341.71
1853	"	59,803,117.70
1854	"	42,242,222.42
1855	"	35,586,858.56
1856	"	31,972,537.90
1857	"	28,699,831.85
1858	"	44,911,881.03
1859	"	58,496,837.88
1860	"	64,842,287.88
1861	"	90,580,873.72
1862	"	524,176,412.13
1863	"	1,119,772,138.63
1864	"	1,815,784,370.57
1865	"	2,680,647,869.74
1866	"	2,773,236,173.69
1867	July 1	$2,678,126,103.87
1868	"	2,611,687,851.19
1869	"	2,588,452,213.94
1870	"	2,480,672,427.81
1871	"	2,353,211,332.32
1872	"	2,253,251,328.78
1873	"	2,234,482,993.20
1874	"	2,251,690,468.43
1875	"	2,232,284,531.95
1876	"	2,180,395,067.15
1877	"	2,205,301,392.10
1878	"	2,256,205,892.53
1879	"	2,340,567,232.04
1880	"	2,128,791,054.63
1881	"	2,077,389,253.58
1882	"	1,926,688,678.03
1883	"	1,892,547,412.07
1884	"	1,838,904,607.57
1885	"	1,872,340,557.14
1886	"	1,783,438,697.78
1887	Dec. 1	1,664,461,536.38
1888	"	1,680,917,706.23
1889	"	1,617,372,419.53
1890	"	1,549,206,126.48
1891	"	1,546,961,695.61
1892	"	1,563,612,455.63
1893	Nov. 1	1,549,556,353.63
1894	"	1,626,154,037.68
1895	"	1,717,481,779.90
1896	"	1,785,412,640.00
1897	"	1,808,777,643.40
1898	"	1,964,837,130.90
1899	"	2,092,686,024.42
1900	"	2,132,373,031.17
1901	"	2,151,585,743.89
1902	"	2,175,246,168.89
1903	"	2,218,883,772.89
1904	"	2,304,697,418.64
1905	"	2,293,846,382.34
1906	Dec. 1	2,429,370,043.54
1907	Nov. 1	2,492,231,518.54
1908	"	2,637,973,747.04
1909	"	2,661,426,301.04
1910	Dec. 1	2,704,142,281.69
1911	Nov. 1	2,831,330,305.66

RÉSUMÉ OF DEBT JANUARY 2, 1912.

Interest-bearing debt ...	$963,359,390.00
Debt (interest ceased) .	1,821,830.26
Debt bearing no interest	379,794,799.90
Treasury notes, etc., offset by cash in the treasury	1,503,215,369.00
Total	2,848,191,389.16

See ASSUMPTION, FINANCES.

INTEREST-BEARING DEBT, JANUARY 2, 1912.

Title of loan.	Authorizing act.	Rate	When issued.	When redeemable.	Interest payable.	Amount issued.	Outstanding January 2, 1912.		
							Registered.	Coupon.	Total.
Consols of 1930	March 14, 1900	2 per cent.	1900	After Apr. 1, 1930	J.,O.,J., & A.	$646,250,150.00	$642,109,650.00	$4,140,500.00	$646,250,150.00
Loan of 1908–1918	June 13, 1908	3 per cent.	1898	After Aug. 1, 1908	A.,N.,F.,&M	198,792,660.00	43,732,460.00	20,213,000.00	63,945,460.00
Loan of 1925	Jan. 14, 1875	4 per cent.	1895–1896	After Feb. 1, 1925	F.,M.,A.,&Nr	162,315,400.00	99,690,500.00	18,799,400.00	118,489,900.00
Panama Canal Loan Series 1906	June 28, 1902, and Dec. 21, 1905	2 per cent.	1906	After Aug. 1, 1916	N.,F.,M.,&Ar	54,631,980.00	54,606,740.00	25,240.00	54,631,980.00
Series 1908	do	2 per cent.	1908	After Nov. 1, 1918	F.,M.,A.,&Nr	30,000,000.00	29,640,820.00	359,180.00	30,000,000.00
Series 1911	Aug. 5, 1909, Feb. 4, 1910, and March 2, 1911	3 per cent.	1911	June 1, 1961	S.,D.,M.,&J.	50,000,000.00	27,874,400.00	22,125,600.00	50,000,000.00
Postal Saving Bonds 1911–31	June 25, 1910	2½ per cent.	1911	Redeemable July 1, 1912 Payable July 1, 1931	Jan. & July	41,900.00	36,640.00	5,260.00	41,900.00
Aggregate of interest-bearing debt						$1,142,032,090.00	$897,691,210.00	$65,668,180.00	$963,359,390.00

DEBT ON WHICH INTEREST HAS CEASED SINCE MATURITY.

Funded loan of 1891, continued at 2 per cent., called for redemption May 18, 1900; interest ceased Aug. 18, 1900	$7,000.00
Funded loan of 1891, matured Sept. 2, 1891	23,650.00
Loan of 1904, matured Feb. 2, 1904	13,350.00
Funded loan of 1907, matured July 2, 1907	859,000.00
Refunding certificates, matured July 1, 1907	14,480.00
Old debt matured at various dates prior to Jan. 1, 1861, and other items of debt matured at various dates subsequent to Jan. 1, 1861	904,350.00
Aggregate of debt on which interest has ceased since maturity	$1,821,830.00

DEBT BEARING NO INTEREST.

United States notes	Feb. 25, 1862; July 11, 1862; March 3, 1863	346,681,016.00
Old demand notes	July 17, 1861; Feb. 12, 1862	53,282.50
National-bank notes: Redemption account	July 14, 1890	26,203,861.50
Fractional currency	July 17, 1862; March 3, 1863; June 30, 1864; less $8,375,934 estimated as lost or destroyed, Act of June 21, 1879	6,856,639.90
Aggregate of debt bearing no interest		379,794,799.90

CERTIFICATES AND NOTES ISSUED ON DEPOSITS OF COIN AND SILVER BULLION.

Classification.		In treasury.	In circulation.	Outstanding.
Gold certificates	March 3, 1863; July 12, 1882; March 14, 1900	$104,012,002.00	$906,944,367.00	$1,010,956,369.00
Silver certificates	Feb. 28, 1878; Aug. 4, 1886; March 3, 1887; March 14, 1900	11,138,716.00	478,027,284.00	489,166,000.00
Treasury notes of 1890	July 14, 1890; March 14, 1900	14,386.00	3,078,614.00	3,093,000.00
Aggregate of certificates and treasury notes offset by cash in the treasury		$115,165,104.00	$1,388,050,265.00	$1,503,215,369.00

Debtors. In the United States even as late as 1829 it was estimated that there were 3,000 debtors in prison in Massachusetts, 10,000 in New York, 7,000 in Pennsylvania, and a like proportion in the other States. Imprisonment for debt was abolished in the United States by an act of Congress in 1833, though not fully enforced until 1839. Kentucky abolished the law in 1821; Ohio in 1828; Maryland in 1830; New York in 1831; Connecticut in 1837; Alabama in 1848.

In 1828 there were 1,088 debtors imprisoned in Philadelphia; the sum total of their debts was only $25,409, and the expense of keeping them $362,076, which was paid by the city, and the total amount recovered from prisoners by this process was only $295.

Debts, BRITISH. When the Revolution broke out many American citizens owed money to British creditors. These debts were generally repudiated, but the treaty of 1783 provided for their payment. Some of the State governments permitted the payment of such funds into the State treasuries, and then refused to entertain suits on the part of the creditors. The United States Supreme Court, in the case of Ware *vs.* Hylton, decided that such debts should be paid, but payments were evaded in various ways.

Debts, COLONIAL AND CONTINENTAL. In 1690 Massachusetts, in order to pay the expenses of a military fiasco, had been tempted to avoid increased taxation by issuing bills of credit, which "like the River Nyle in Egypt," were to "make all the land fruitful." Her example was followed with evil consequences, to which the colonists, except "the men of business and property," were blind, and when, in 1764, Parliament passed an act prohibiting the emission of bills of credit, the colonists bitterly resented it. The act for their good became a cause of revolution. For eighty years they had been habituated to paper money based on public credit and pledged taxes, or issued at loan offices on land security, and nothing was more natural than for Congress to turn in the hour of need to this temporary resource.

That policy once entered upon could not be checked, and before the close of the Revolutionary War over $240,000,000 had been issued, and side by side with it, in ruinous rivalry, was over $200,000,000 issued by the States in spite of the protests of Congress. Beyond $20,000,000 the Congressional alchemy failed to change paper into gold, and early in 1777 depreciation to the extent of thirty-three and one-half per cent. was recognized by law in Pennsylvania. All financial arrangements made before the war were thereby deranged. Persons depending upon life incomes, fixed salaries, or fixed rents were ruined. Widows and orphans and all who had saved in the years before the war lost daily, while many debtors hastened to pay their debts with depreciated bills. They took advantage of legal-tender laws, hastily passed in most of the States to stay the downward plunge of distrusted paper, and debtors pursued their creditors "in triumph, paying them without mercy." Then prices soared to absurd heights, because the owners of goods tried to exact in quantity what the paper medium lacked in value. But wages and salaries did not increase in equal proportion. To meet this emergency, laws were passed at various times, in one State to-day and in another to-morrow, regulating the prices for which goods might be sold. Addresses poured in upon Congress, and conventions were held to try the balm of uniformity for the bruised finances. Prices varied so widely in different localities, and from week to week, that sharp money-getting men rapidly enriched themselves. Men left honest trades to become rich knaves.

The moral evil increased daily. "Speculation, peculation, engrossing, forestalling," wrote Washington, "afford too many melancholy proofs of the decay of public virtue." In Philadelphia many seemed abandoned to the most unrestrained luxury of living. Fortunes were quickly won and quickly spent. Nothing seemed stable, and the spirit of gambling grew apace. Worse still was the temptation to counterfeit. The crude designs and signatures were easy to copy and forge, and, in spite of terrifying laws passed post-haste to frighten down the evil, the volume of counterfeits grew, and dragged down with it the already discredited genuine paper. The British quickly seized upon this weapon for ruining the

patriot cause, and large quantities of counterfeits were made within the British lines, thence spreading broadcast over America. As a result of the Continental bills of credit and the attendant evils, a witness truly said of the patriots, "Their paper money hangs like a mill-stone about their necks and is ready to sink them."

After the War of the Revolution the currency of the country was in such a state of disorder and depreciation, and so much did terms differ from State to State, that the dollar was worth six shillings in New England and Virginia, eight shillings in New York and North Carolina, seven shillings sixpence in Pennsylvania, five shillings in Georgia, and thirty-two shillings sixpence in South Carolina. Some quick method of paying old debts was naturally sought after, and, following the precedents of earlier days, there was a demand for paper money. The years 1785 and 1786 are therefore marked by the rise of a paper-money party in the States, intent on remedying the supposed evil of the day, "a scarcity of money." The natural result of strenuous efforts to introduce a cheap currency was to drive specie out of circulation.

Some of the States, in spite of the popular excitement over financial ills, refused to go back to paper. Connecticut had issued paper at the outbreak of the war, but was now well out of the trouble and steadfastly refused to burn her fingers anew. Massachusetts was feeling sorely the derangement of her trade, and within her borders were thousands of surly malcontents who grumbled without ceasing and threatened unsparingly; but she, too, was not allured into seeking peace and prosperity by the practical confiscation of credits. New Hampshire, Virginia, Delaware, and Maryland likewise resisted, though in each was a powerful party eagerly working for paper.

Rhode Island had been founded as a home of the "otherwise minded." It had already experimented much with paper money, but there were many who had lost faith in what Jay called "the doctrine of the political transubstantiation of paper into gold and silver." The legislature passed a bill for the emission of bills of credit which were to be issued to the freeholders of the State, on the security of landed property of twice the value of the loan. The scrip was made legal tender in payment of debts. The inevitable difficulties, of course, ensued, for the creditors, reversing the time-worn practice, sought to escape their debtors for fear of being paid in worthless money. To make escape impossible, a law was passed declaring that a debtor might pay into court a sum which he asserted he owed to a creditor. To refuse to take the scrip was made a crime.

The foreign Continental debt, on Jan. 14, 1790, was $11,710,378 (of which about $1,500,000 was interest), principally held by France and private parties in Holland; and the domestic debt was $42,414,085 (of which nearly one-third was interest). Alexander Hamilton, then Secretary of the Treasury, holding that as the greater part of the debts of the States had been incurred in behalf of the Union, they should be paid by the Union, proposed that the government assume the debts of the States, and then fund the entire debt. A resolution to assume the State debts was first carried in Congress, then on recommittal lost by two votes, and later adopted conditionally. The funding bill as finally passed authorized the President to borrow not exceeding $12,000,000 for the payment of the foreign debt, and also authorized a loan for the whole of the domestic debt.

Of the debts of the States, $21,500,000 was assumed in specific sums—*viz.*: Massachusetts and South Carolina, each $4,000,000; Virginia, $3,500,000; North Carolina, $2,400,000; Pennsylvania, $2,200,000; Connecticut, $1,600,000; New York, $1,200,000; New Jersey and Maryland, each $800,000; New Hampshire and Georgia, each, $300,000; and Rhode Island and Delaware, each, $200,000. For the payment of these State debts the loan provided terms of interest and maturity different from those for the Continental debt. See CURRENCY, CONTINENTAL.

Decatur, Ga. A battle was fought here, July 20, 1864, between a portion of Sherman's army, under General Thomas, and the Confederates under General Hood, the latter retreating at nightfall. The Union loss was 1,500 in killed and wounded. The Confederate loss was estimated by General Sherman at about 5,000.

Decatur, STEPHEN, naval officer; born in Sinnepuxent, Md., Jan. 5, 1779; died near Washington, D. C., March 22, 1820; entered the United States navy as a midshipman April 30, 1798, and rose to

STEPHEN DECATUR

captain in 1804. His first notable exploit was the destruction of the *Philadelphia* in the harbor of Tripoli, in the Preble Expedition, for which Congress gave him thanks, a sword, and promotion. The *Philadelphia* had chased a Tripolitan ship into the harbor in front of that town, and struck upon a rock not laid down on the charts. Fast bound, she was captured by the Tripolitans, and Captain Bainbridge and his officers were made prisoners of war, and the crew were made slaves.

Decatur caught a Tripolitan ketch laden with maidens, whom the Bashaw was sending to the Sultan at Constantinople as a present.

The captured ketch was taken into the United States service and renamed the *Intrepid.* In her *Decatur* and seventy-four brave young men sailed for Tripoli, accompanied by the *Siren,* under Lieutenant (afterwards Commodore) Stewart.

On a bright moonlit evening they sailed boldly into the harbor, warped alongside the *Philadelphia,* sprang on board, and after a fierce struggle all the Tripolitans were killed or driven into the sea, the *Philadelphia* was set on fire, and the *Intrepid* was towed out of the harbor by the boats of the *Siren.*

The Bashaw was greatly alarmed by this display of American energy and boldness, and acted with more caution in the future.

Decatur commanded a division of gunboats in the attack on Tripoli, Aug. 3, 1804. In this action Decatur commanded a gunboat, which he laid alongside of a large Tripolitan war-ship, which he captured after a brief struggle. Immediately boarding another vessel, Decatur had a desperate personal struggle with the commander. The fight was brief but deadly. Decatur slew his antagonist, and the vessel was captured. The Americans withdrew, but four days later renewed the conflict, which was indecisive, but on Aug. 24 and 28, and Sept. 3, Preble repeated the attack, and on the night of Sept. 4 the *Intrepid,* under Captain Somers as a fire-ship, was lost in the attack, with all on board.

In command of the frigate *United*

States, Decatur captured the frigate *Macedonian*, Oct. 25, 1812, for which Congress gave him a gold medal. The *Macedonian* was a new ship, rated at thirty-six, but carrying forty-nine guns. She was badly cut in the fight, and Decatur thought best to order his prize to Newport, while he returned in the *United States* to New London. Both vessels sailed into New York harbor on New Year's Day, 1813. The Corporation gave Decatur the "freedom of the city," and requested his portrait for the picture-gallery in the City Hall, where it still hangs. In January, 1815, after a running fight, the *President*, his flagship, was captured by a British squadron; and a few months later he was sent to the Mediterranean, and compelled the government of Algiers to relinquish its barbarous conduct towards other powers and to pay for American property destroyed (see ALGIERS). He was appointed a navy commissioner in November, 1815, and made his residence in the fine mansion of Kalorama, about a mile from Georgetown, built by Joel Barlow. Decatur had opposed the reinstatement of Barron to his former position in the navy, and a duel was the consequence. They fought at the famous duelling-ground near Bladensburg, when Decatur was mortally wounded, and was taken to Washington. Gen. Solomon Van Rensselaer wrote to his wife from that city, on March 20, 1820, as follows: "I have only time, after

ALGIERS IN 1812.

KALORAMA.

writing to several, to say that an affair of honor took place this morning between Commodores Decatur and Barron, in which both fell at the first fire. The ball entered Decatur's body two inches above the hip and lodged against the opposite side. I just came from his house. He yet lives, but will never see another sun. Barron's wound is severe, but not dangerous. The

DECATUR'S MONUMENT.

ball struck the upper part of his hip and turned to the rear. He is ruined in public estimation. The excitement is very great." Decatur died March 22, and his remains were taken from the house in Washington to Kalorama by the following officers: Commodores Tingey, Macdonough, Rodgers, and Porter, Captains Cassin, Ballard, and Chauncey, Generals Brown and Jesup, and Lieutenant McPherson. The funeral was attended by nearly all the public functionaries in Washington, American and foreign and a great number of citizens. While the procession was moving minute-guns were fired at the navy-yard. His remains were deposited in Joel Barlow's vault at Kalorama, where they remained until 1846, when they were taken to Philadelphia and reinterred, with appropriate ceremonies, in St. Peter's cemetery. Over them a beautiful monument, delineated in the accompanying engraving, was erected.

Decimal System. In 1782, Gouverneur Morris, assistant fiscal agent of the Continental Congress, reported a decimal currency system, designed to harmonize the moneys of the States. He ascertained that the 1,440th part of a Spanish dollar was a common divisor for the various currencies. With this as a unit he proposed the following table of moneys: 10 units to be equal to 1 penny, 10 pence to 1 bill, 10 bills 1 dollar (about 75 cents of the present currency), 10 dollars 1 crown. In 1784, Mr. Jefferson, as chairman of a committee of Congress, proposed to strike four coins upon the basis of the Spanish dollar, as follows: A gold piece worth 10 dollars, a dollar in silver, a 10th of a dollar in silver, a 100th of a dollar in copper. Congress adopted his proposition, hence the cent, dime, dollar, and eagle of the United States currency. See METRIC SYSTEM.

Declaration of Colonial Rights. In the first Continental Congress (1774) a committee of two from each colony framed and reported, in the form of a series of ten resolves, a declaration of the rights of the colonies: 1. Their natural rights; 2. That from their ancestry they were entitled to all the rights, liberties, and immunities of free and natural-born subjects of England; 3. That by the emigration to America by their ancestors they never lost any of those rights, and that their descendants were entitled to the exercise of those rights; 4. That the foundation of all free governments is in the right of the people to participate in their legislative council; and as the American colonists could not exercise such right in the British Parliament, they were entitled to a free and exclusive power of legislation in their several provincial legislatures, where the right of representation could alone be preserved. (They conceded the right of Parliament to regulate ex-

ternal commerce, but denied its right to tax them in any way, without their consent, for raising an internal or external revenue.) 5. That they were entitled to the common law of England, and more especially the great privilege of being tried by their peers of the vicinage according to the course of law; 6. That they were entitled to the benefit of English statutes at the time of the emigration of their ancestors; 7. That they were entitled to all the immunities and privileges conferred upon them by royal charters or secured to them by provincial laws; 8. That they had a right peaceably to assemble, state their grievances, and petition the King without interference of ministers; 9. That the keeping of a standing army in any colony, without the consent of the legislature, was unlawful; 10. That the exercise of legislative power in several colonies by a council appointed during pleasure by the crown was unconstitutional, dangerous, and destructive to the freedom of American legislation. The report of the committee designated the various acts of Parliament which were infringements and violations of the rights of the colonists, and declared that the repeal of them was essentially necessary in order to restore harmony between Great Britain and the American colonies. The acts enumerated were eleven in number —namely, Sugar act, stamp act, two quartering acts, tea act, act suspending the New York legislature, two acts for the trial in Great Britain of offences committed in America, Boston Port bill, the act for regulating [subverting] the government of Massachusetts, and the Quebec act.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

Declaration of Independence. It was very important to have Lee's resolution for independence, offered June 7, 1776, prefaced by a preamble that should clearly declare the causes which impelled the representatives of the people to adopt it. To avoid loss of time, a committee was appointed (June 11) to prepare such declaration. The committee was composed of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston. Mr. Lee having been called home before the appointment of the committee, Mr. Jefferson was put in his place. He was requested by the committee, after discussing the topics, to make a draft of a declaration of independence. It was discussed in committee, amended very slightly, and finally reported. Debates upon it were long and animated. There was some opposition to voting for independence at all, and it was considerably amended. It was evident from the beginning that a majority of the colonies would vote for independence (the vote in Congress was by colonies), but it was important that the vote should be unanimous.

The declaration was warmly debated on the day (July 2) when the resolution was passed, and also on the 3d. Meanwhile news came of the arrival of a large British armament, under the brothers Howe, at Sandy Hook. Immediate and united action was essential. McKean, one of the two representatives of Delaware present, burning with a desire to have the vote of his colony recorded in the affirmative, sent an express after the third delegate, Cæsar Rodney. He was 80 miles from Philadelphia. Ten minutes after receiving McKean's message Rodney was in the saddle, and, riding all night, he reached the floor of Congress (July 4) just in time to secure the vote of Delaware in favor of independence. All three of the delegates from Delaware voted for the declaration. The vote of Pennsylvania was also secured, a majority of its seven delegates being in favor of the measure; and on the 4th of July, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was adopted by the unanimous vote of the Congress. See WINTHROP, R. C.

On Thursday, July 4, 1776, agreeable to the order of the day, Congress resolved itself into a committee of the whole to consider the declaration, President John Hancock in the chair. The secretary, Benjamin Harrison, reported that the committee had agreed upon a declaration, which was read and adopted as follows:

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to

READING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, CITY HALL SQUARE, NEW YORK CITY

dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect for the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

HOUSE IN WHICH JEFFERSON WROTE THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their formal system of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operations till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature — a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after

such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the danger of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers, to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in time of peace,

INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA.

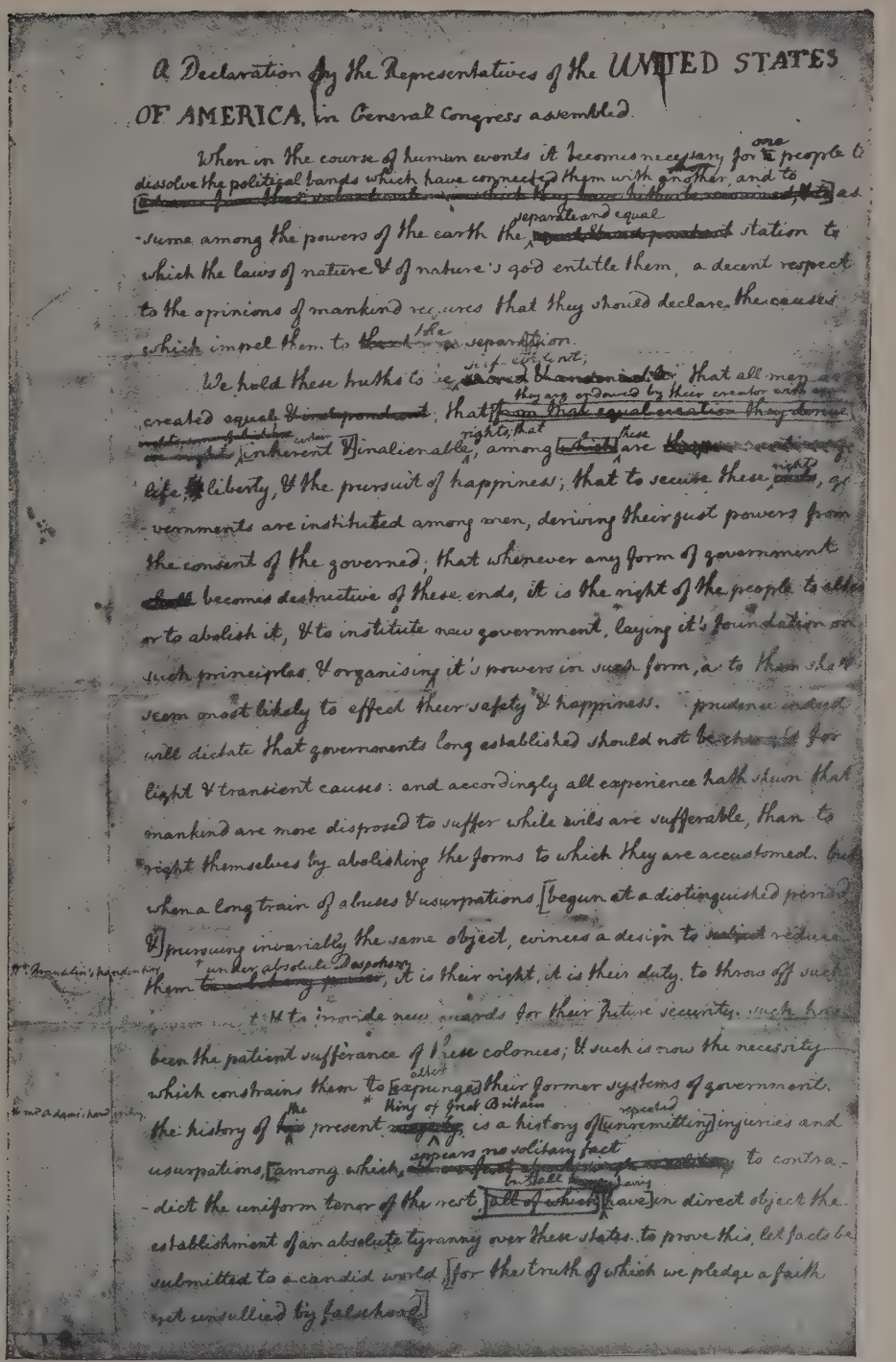
obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of and superior to the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution and unacknowledged by our laws;

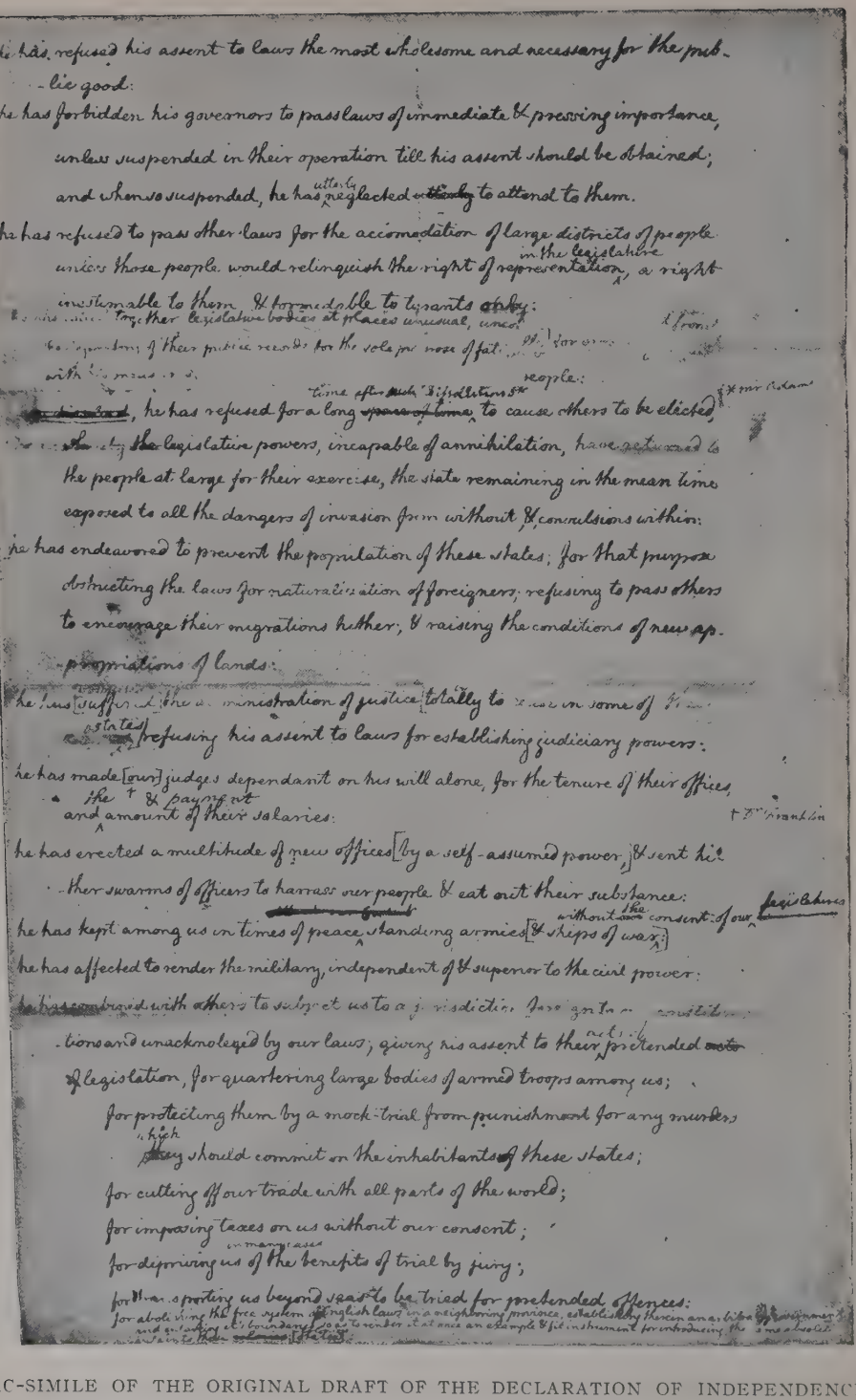


A Declaration by the Representatives of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, in General Congress assembled.

When in the course of human events it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature & of nature's god entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self evident; that all men are created equal & independent, that from that equal creation they derive rights inherent & inalienable, among these are life, liberty, & the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, & to institute new government, laying it's foundation on such principles & organising it's powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety & happiness. prudence indeed will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light & transient causes: and accordingly all experience hath shewn that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. but when a long train of abuses & usurpations [begun at a distinguished period] & pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, & to provide new guards for their future security. such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; & such is now the necessity which constrains them to expunge their former systems of government. the history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of unremitting injuries and usurpations, among which appears no solitary fact to contradict the uniform tenor of the rest, all of which have in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. to prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world [for the truth of which we pledge a faith yet unsullied by falsehood]

FAC-SIMILE OF THE ORIGINAL DRAFT OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE



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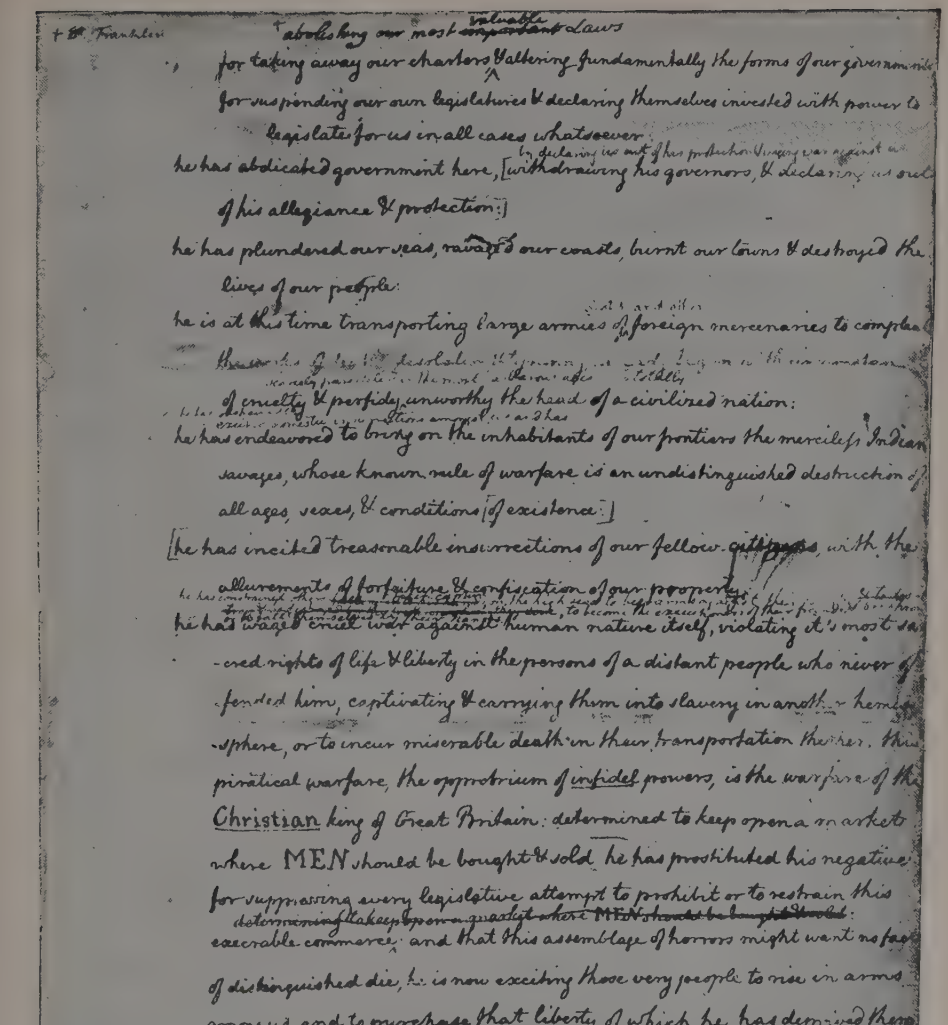

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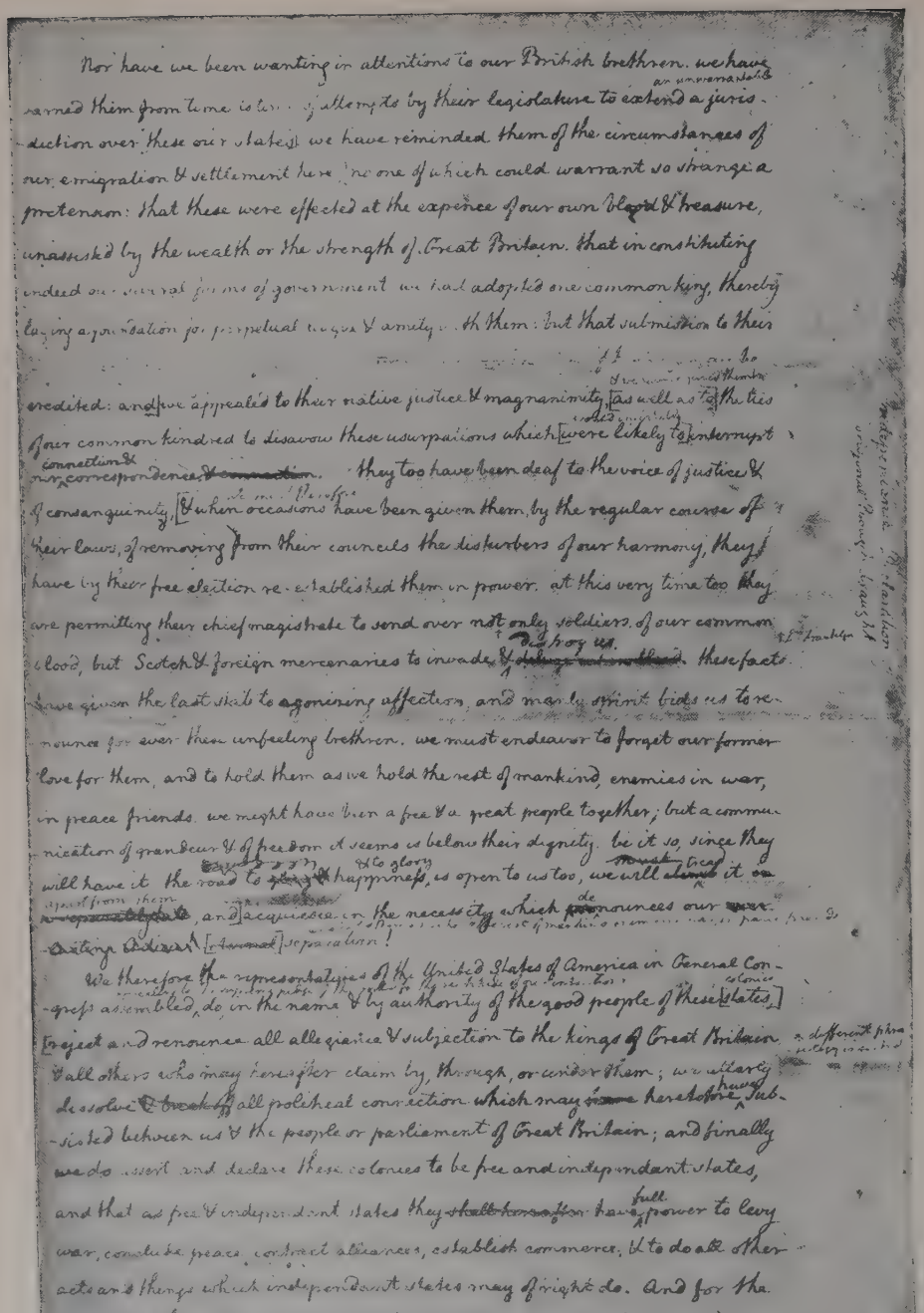


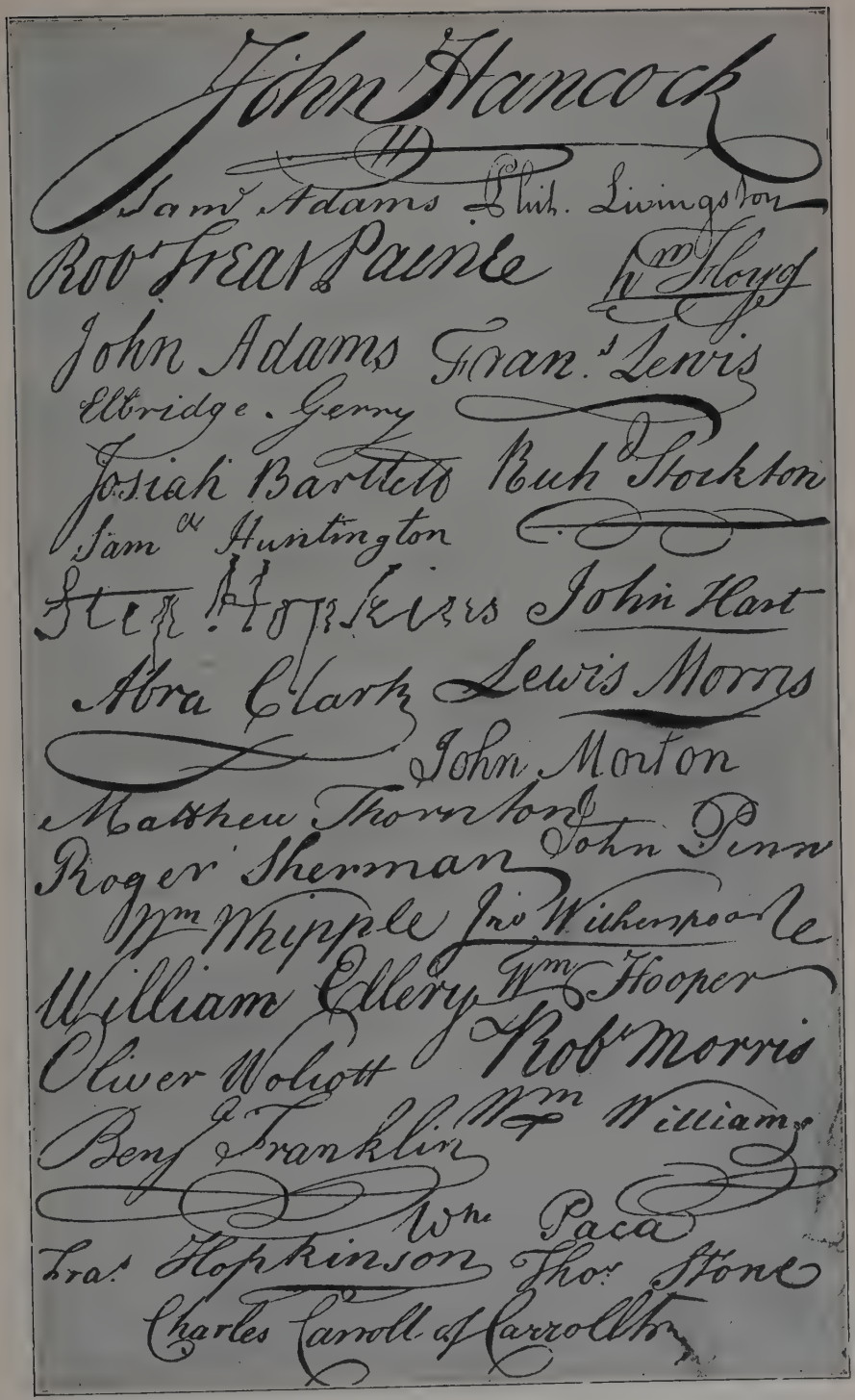
Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. we have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over these our states; we have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration & settlement here, no one of which could warrant so strange a pretension: that these were effected at the expence of our own blood & treasure, unassisted by the wealth or the strength of Great Britain. that in constituting indeed our several forms of government we had adopted one common king, thereby laying a foundation for perpetual league & amity with them: but that submission to their

to be

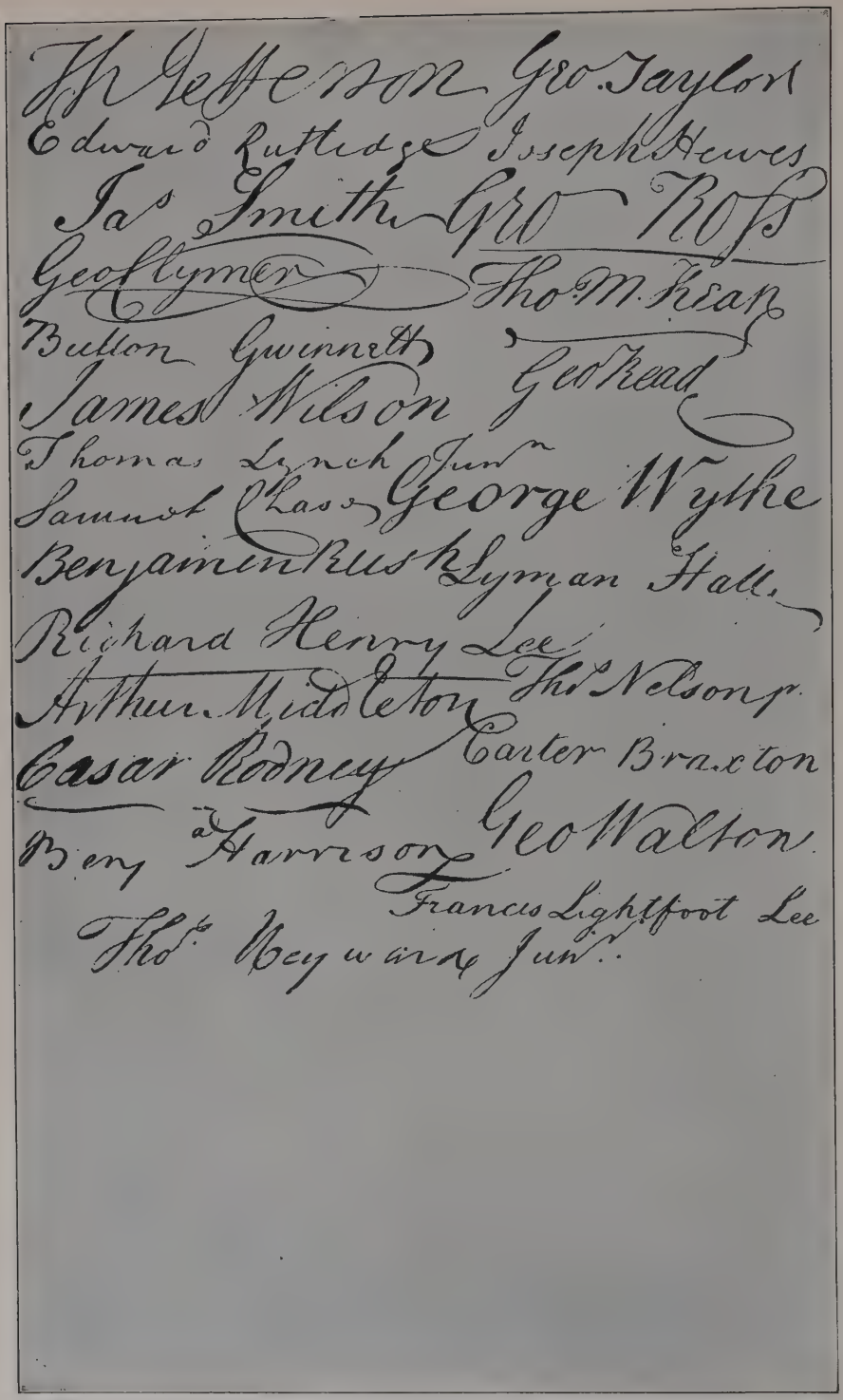
parliament was no part of our constitution, nor ever in idea, if history may be credited: and we appealed to their native justice & magnanimity, as well as to the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations which were likely to interrupt our connection & correspondence. they too have been deaf to the voice of justice & of consanguinity. & when occasions have been given them by the regular course of their laws, of removing from their councils the disturbers of our harmony, they have by their free election re-established them in power. at this very time too they are permitting their chief magistrate to send over not only soldiers of our common blood, but Scotch & foreign mercenaries to invade & destroy us. these facts have given the last stab to agonizing affection, and manly spirit bids us to renounce for ever these unfeeling brethren. we must endeavor to forget our former love for them, and to hold them as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends. we might have been a free & a great people together; but a communication of grandeur & of freedom it seems is below their dignity. be it so, since they will have it. the road to happiness, as open to us too, we will take it. we must therefore acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We therefore the representatives of the United States of America in General Congress assembled, do in the name & by authority of the good people of these colonies solemnly publish & declare that these united colonies are & of right ought to be free & independent states, that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, & that all political connection between them & the state of Great Britain is & ought to be totally dissolved; & that as free & independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, & to do all other acts & things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, & our sacred honour.

FAC-SIMILE OF THE ORIGINAL DRAFT OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE



FAC-SIMILE OF THE SIGNATURES TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE



FAC-SIMILE OF THE SIGNATURES TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

THE SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

GARDEN HOUSE IN WHICH JEFFERSON AND OTHERS CELEBRATED THE PASSAGE OF THE DECLARATION.

giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation,—

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offences:

For abolishing the free system of English law in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering fundamentally the forms of our government:

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries, to complete the works of death, desolation, and

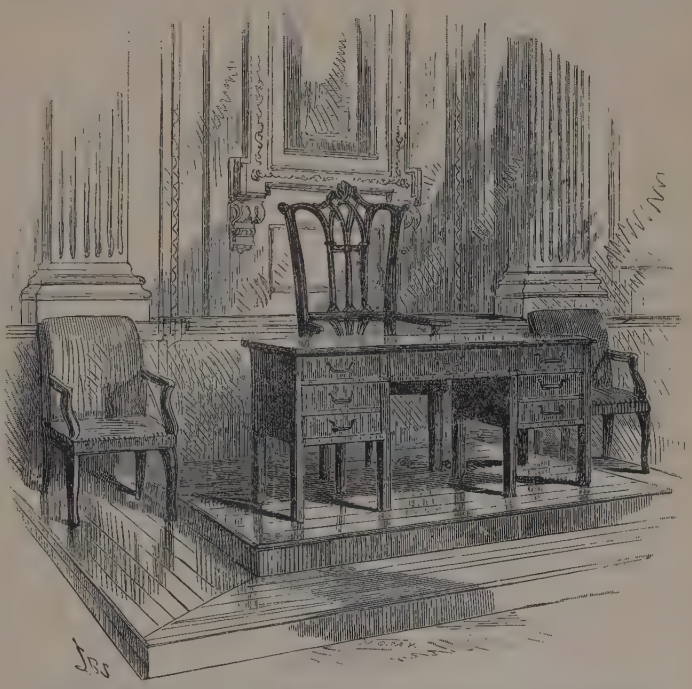


TABLE AND CHAIR USED AT THE SIGNING OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts made by their legislatures to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must therefore acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war—in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of good right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the states of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

Signed by order and in behalf of the Congress.

JOHN HANCOCK, President.
Attested, CHARLES THOMPSON, Secretary.

New Hampshire.

JOSIAH BARTLETT, WILLIAM WHIPPLE,
MATTHEW THORNTON.

Massachusetts Bay.

SAMUEL ADAMS, JOHN ADAMS,
ROBERT TREAT PAINE, ELBRIDGE GERRY.

Rhode Island, Etc.

STEPHEN HOPKINS, WILLIAM ELLERY.

Connecticut.

ROGER SHERMAN, SAMUEL HUNTINGTON,
WILLIAM WILLIAMS, OLIVER WOLCOTT.

New York.

WILLIAM FLOYD, PHILIP LIVINGSTON,
FRANCIS LEWIS, LEWIS MORRIS.

New Jersey.

RICHARD STOCKTON, JOHN WITHERSPOON,
FRANCIS HOPKINSON, JOHN HART,
ABRAHAM CLARK.

North Carolina.

WILLIAM HOOPER, JOSEPH HEWES,
JOHN PENN.

Georgia.

BUTTON GWINNETT, LYMAN HALL,
GEORGE WALTON.

Pennsylvania.

ROBERT MORRIS, BENJAMIN RUSH,
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, JOHN MORTON,
GEORGE CLYMER, JAMES SMITH,
GEORGE TAYLOR, WILLIAM PACA,
GEORGE ROSS.

Delaware.

CAESAR RODNEY, GEORGE READ,
THOMAS M'KEAN.

Maryland.

SAMUEL CHASE, JAMES WILSON,
THOMAS STONE,
CHARLES CARROLL OF CARROLLTON.

Virginia.

GEORGE WYTHE, RICHARD HENRY LEE,
THOMAS JEFFERSON,
BENJAMIN HARRISON
THOMAS NELSON, JR.,
FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE,
CARTER BRAXTON.

South Carolina.

EDWARD RUTLEDGE,
THOMAS HEYWARD, JR.,
THOMAS LYNCH, JR.,
ARTHUR MIDDLETON.

Declaration of Independence in the Light of Modern Criticism, THE. As a student, critic, and compiler of American history PROF. MOSES C. TYLER (*q. v.*) held an established position among the most eminent scholars. In 1867 he was appointed to the chair of English Literature at the University of Michigan, which he occupied until 1881, when he was called to the University of Cornell as Professor of American History. On the subject of criticisms on the Declaration of Independence he writes:

It can hardly be doubted that some hinderance to the right estimate of the Declaration of Independence is occasioned by either of two opposite conditions of mind, both of which are often to be met with among us: on the one hand, a condition of hereditary, uncritical awe and worship of the American Revolution, and of that state paper as its absolutely perfect and glorious expression; on the other hand, a later condition of cultivated distrust of the Declaration as a piece of writing lifted up into inordinate renown by the passionate and heroic circumstances of its origin, and ever since then extolled beyond reason by the blind energy of patriotic enthusiasm. Turning from the former state of mind, which obviously calls for no further comment, we may note, as a partial illustration of the latter, that American confidence in the supreme intellectual merit of this all-famous document received a serious wound from the hand of Rufus Choate, when, with a courage greater than would now be required for such an act, he characterized it as made up of "glittering and sounding generalities of natural right." What the great advocate then so unhesitatingly suggested, many a thoughtful American since then has at least suspected—that our great proclamation, as a piece of political literature, cannot stand the test of modern analysis; that it belongs to the immense class of over-praised productions; that it is, in fact, a stately patch-work of sweeping propositions of somewhat doubtful validity; that it has long imposed upon mankind by the well-known effectiveness of verbal glitter and sound; that, at the best, it is an example of florid political declamation belonging to the sophomoric period of our national life, a period which, as we flatter ourselves, we have now outgrown.

Nevertheless, it is to be noted that whatever authority the Declaration of Independence has acquired in the world, has been due to no lack of criticism, either at the time of its first appearance, or since then; a fact which seems to tell in favor of its essential worth and strength. From the date of its original publication down to the present moment, it has been attacked again and again, either in anger or in contempt, by friends as well as by enemies of the American Revolution, by liberals in politics as well as by conservatives. It has been censured for its substance, it has been censured for its form, for its misstatements of fact, for its fallacies in reasoning, for its audacious novelties and paradoxes, for its total lack of all novelty, for its repetition of old and threadbare statements, even for its downright plagiarisms; finally for its grandiose and vaporing style.

One of the earliest and ablest of its assailants was Thomas Hutchinson, the last civil governor of the colony of Massachusetts, who, being stranded in London by the political storm which had blown him thither, published there, in the autumn of 1776, his *Strictures Upon the Declaration of the Congress at Philadelphia*, wherein, with an unsurpassed knowledge of the origin of the controversy, and with an unsurpassed acumen in the discussion of it, he traverses the entire document, paragraph by paragraph, for the purpose of showing that

its allegations in support of American independence are "false and frivolous."

A better-written, and, upon the whole, a more plausible and a more powerful, arraignment of the great declaration was the celebrated pamphlet by Sir John Dalrymple, *The Rights of Great Britain Asserted against the Claims of America: Being an Answer to the Declaration of the General Congress*—a pamphlet scattered broadcast over the world at such a rate that at least eight editions of it were published during the last three or four months of the year 1776. Here, again, the manifesto of Congress is subjected to a searching examination, in order to prove that "the facts are either wilfully or ignorantly misrepresented, and the arguments deduced from premises that have no foundation in truth." It is doubtful if any disinterested student of history, any competent judge of reasoning, will now deny to this pamphlet the praise of making out a very strong case against the historical accuracy and the logical soundness of many parts of the Declaration of Independence.

Undoubtedly, the force of such censures is for us much broken by the fact that they proceeded from men who were themselves partisans in the Revolutionary controversy, and bitterly hostile to the whole movement which the declaration was intended to justify. Such is not the case, however, with the leading modern English critics of the same document, who, while blaming in severe terms the policy of the British government towards the thirteen colonies, have also found much to abate from the confidence due to this official announcement of the reasons for our secession from the empire. For example, Earl Russell, after frankly saying that the great disruption proclaimed by the Declaration of Independence was a result which Great Britain had "used every means most fitted to bring about," such as "vacillation in council, harshness in language, feebleness in execution, disregard of American sympathies and affections," also pointed out that "the truth of this memorable declaration" was "warped" by "one singular defect"—namely, its exclusive and excessive arraignment of George III. "as a single and despotic tyrant," much like Philip II. to the people of the Netherlands.

This temperate criticism from an able and a liberal English statesman of the nineteenth century may be said to touch the very core of the problem as to the historic justice of our great indictment of the last King of America; and there is deep significance in the fact that this is the very criticism upon the document, which, as John Adams tells us, he himself had in mind when it was first submitted to him in committee, and even when, shortly afterwards, he advocated its adoption by Congress. After mentioning certain things in it with which he was delighted, he adds:

"There were other expressions which I would not have inserted if I had drawn it up—particularly that which called the King tyrant. I thought this too personal; for I never believed George to be a tyrant in disposition and in nature. I always believed him to be deceived by his courtiers on both sides of the Atlantic, and in his official capacity only cruel. I thought the expression too passionate, and too much like scolding, for so grave and solemn a document; but, as Franklin and Sherman were to inspect it afterwards, I thought it would not become me to strike it out. I consented to report it."

A more minute and more poignant criticism of the Declaration of Independence has been made in recent years by still another English writer of liberal tendencies, who, however, in his capacity as critic, seems here to labor under the disadvantage of having transferred to the document which he undertakes to judge much of the extreme dislike which he has for the man who wrote it, whom, indeed, he regards as a sophist, as a demagogue, as quite capable of inveracity in speech, and as bearing some resemblance to Robespierre "in his feline nature, his malignant egotism, and his intense suspiciousness, as well as in his bloody-minded, yet possibly sincere, philanthropy." In the opinion of Prof. Goldwin Smith, our great national manifesto is written "in a highly rhetorical strain"; "it opens with sweeping aphorisms about the natural rights of man, at which political science now smiles, and which . . . might seem strange when framed for slave-holding

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communities by a publicist who himself held slaves"; while, in its specifications of fact, it "is not more scrupulously truthful than are the general utterances" of the statesman who was its scribe. Its charges that the several offensive acts of the King, besides "evincing a design to reduce the colonists under absolute despotism," "all had as their direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny," are simply "propositions which history cannot accept." Moreover, the declaration "blinks the fact that many of the acts, styled steps of usurpation, were measures of repression, which, however unwise or excessive, had been provoked by popular outrage." "No government could allow its officers to be assaulted and their houses sacked, its loyal lieges to be tarred and feathered, or the property of merchants sailing under its flag to be thrown by lawless hands into the sea." Even "the preposterous violence and the manifest insincerity of the suppressed clause" against slavery and the slave-trade "are enough to create suspicion as to the spirit in which the whole document was framed."

Finally, as has been already intimated, not even among Americans themselves has the Declaration of Independence been permitted to pass on into the enjoyment of its superb renown without much critical disparagement at the hands of statesmen and historians. No doubt Calhoun had its preamble in mind when he declared that "nothing can be more unfounded and false" than "the prevalent opinion that all men are born free and equal"; for "it rests upon the assumption of a fact which is contrary to universal observation." Of course, all Americans who have shared to any extent in Calhoun's doctrines respecting human society could hardly fail to agree with him in regarding as fallacious and worthless those general propositions in the declaration which seem to constitute its logical starting-point, as well as its ultimate defence.

Perhaps, however, the most frequent form of disparagement to which Jefferson's great state paper has been subjected among us is that which would minimize his merit in composing it, by denying to it the merit of originality. For example, Richard Henry Lee sneered at it as a thing "copied from Locke's *Treatise on Government*." The author of a life of Jefferson, published in the year of Jefferson's retirement from the Presidency, suggests that the credit of having composed the Declaration of Independence "has been perhaps more generally, than truly, given by the public" to that great man. Charles Campbell, the historian of Virginia, intimates that some expressions in the document were taken without acknowledgment from Aphra Behn's tragi-comedy, *The Widow-Ranter, or the History of Bacon in Virginia*. John Stockton Littell describes the Declaration of Independence as "that enduring monument at once of patriotism, and of genius and skill in the art of appropriation"—asserting that "for the sentiments and much of the language" of it, Jefferson was indebted to Chief-Justice Drayton's charge to the grand jury of Charleston, delivered in April, 1776, as well as to the Declaration of Independence said to have been adopted by some citizens of Mecklenburg county, N. C., in May, 1775. Even the latest and most critical editor of the writings of Jefferson calls attention to the fact that a glance at the Declaration of Rights, as adopted by Virginia on June 12, 1776, "would seem to indicate the source from which Jefferson derived a most important and popular part" of his famous production. By no one, however, has the charge of a lack of originality been pressed with so much decisiveness as by John Adams, who took evident pleasure in speaking of it as a document in which were merely "recapitulated" previous and well-known statements of American rights and wrongs, and who, as late as in the year 1822, deliberately wrote:

"There is not an idea in it but what had been hackneyed in Congress for two years before. The substance of it is contained in the declaration of rights and the violation of those rights, in the journals of Congress, in 1774. Indeed, the essence of it is contained in a pamphlet, voted and printed by the town of Boston, before the first Congress met, composed by James Otis, as I suppose, in one of his lucid intervals, and pruned and polished by Samuel Adams."

Perhaps nowhere in our literature would it be possible to find a criticism

brought forward by a really able man against any piece of writing less applicable to the case, and of less force and value, than is this particular criticism by John Adams and others, as to the lack of originality in the Declaration of Independence. Indeed, for such a paper as Jefferson was commissioned to write, the one quality which it could not properly have had, the one quality which would have been fatal to its acceptance either by the American Congress or by the American people—is originality. They were then at the culmination of a tremendous controversy over alleged grievances of the most serious kind—a controversy that had been steadily raging for at least twelve years. In the course of that long dispute, every phase of it, whether as abstract right or constitutional privilege or personal procedure, had been presented in almost every conceivable form of speech. At last, they had resolved, in view of all this experience, no longer to prosecute the controversy as members of the empire; they had resolved to revolt, and, casting off forever their ancient fealty to the British crown, to separate from the empire, and to establish themselves as a new nation among the nations of the earth. In this emergency, as it happened, Jefferson was called upon to put into form a suitable statement of the chief considerations which prompted them to this great act of revolution, and which, as they believed, justified it. What, then, was Jefferson to do? Was he to regard himself as a mere literary essayist, set to produce before the world a sort of prize dissertation—a calm, analytic, judicial treatise on history and politics with a particular application to Anglo-American affairs—one essential merit of which would be its originality as a contribution to historical and political literature? Was he not, rather, to regard himself as, for the time being, the very mouthpiece and prophet of the people whom he represented, and as such required to bring together and to set in order, in their name, not what was new, but what was old; to gather up into his own soul, as much as possible, whatever was then also in their souls, their very thoughts and passions, their ideas of constitutional law, their interpretations of fact, their opinions as to men and as to events in all that ugly quarrel, their notions of justice, of civic dignity, of human rights; finally, their memories of wrongs which seemed to them intolerable, especially of wrongs inflicted upon them during those twelve years by the hands of insolent and brutal men, in the name of the King, and by his apparent command?

Moreover as the nature of the task laid upon him made it necessary that he should thus state, as the reasons for their intended act, those very considerations both as to fact and as to opinion which had actually operated upon their minds, so did it require him to do so, to some extent, in the very language which the people themselves, in their more formal and deliberate utterances, had all along been using. In the development of political life in England and America, there had already been created a vast literature of constitutional progress—a literature common to both portions of the English race, pervaded by its own stately traditions, and reverberating certain great phrases which formed, as one may say, almost the vernacular of English justice, and of English aspiration for a free, manly, and orderly political life. In this vernacular the Declaration of Independence was written. The phraseology thus characteristic of it is the very phraseology of the champions of constitutional expansion, of civic dignity and progress, within the English race ever since Magna Charta; of the great state papers of English freedom in the seventeenth century, particularly the Petition of Right in 1629, and the Bill of Rights in 1789; of the great English charters for colonization in America; of the great English exponents of legal and political progress—Sir Edward Coke, John Milton, Sir Philip Sidney, John Locke; finally, of the great American exponents of political liberty, and of the chief representative bodies, whether local or general, which had convened in America from the time of the Stamp Act Congress until that of the Congress which resolved upon our independence. To say, therefore, that the official declaration of that resolve is a paper made up of the very opinions, beliefs, unbeliefs, the very sentiments, prejudices, passions, even the errors in judg-

ment and the personal misconstructions—if they were such—which then actually impelled the American people to that mighty act, and that all these are expressed in the very phrases which they had been accustomed to use, is to pay to that state paper the highest tribute as to its fitness for the purpose for which it was framed.

Of much of this, also, Jefferson himself seems to have been conscious; and perhaps never does he rise before us with more dignity, with more truth, than when, late in his lifetime, hurt by the captious and jangling words of disparagement then recently put into writing by his old comrade, to the effect that the Declaration of Independence "contained no new ideas, that it is a commonplace compilation, its sentences hackneyed in Congress for two years before, and its essence contained in Otis's pamphlet," Jefferson quietly remarked that perhaps these statements might "all be true: of that I am not to be the judge. . . . Whether I had gathered my ideas from reading or reflection, I do not know. I only know that I turned to neither book nor pamphlet while writing it. I did not consider it as any part of my charge to invent new ideas altogether and to offer no sentiment which had ever been expressed before."

Before passing from this phase of the subject, however, it should be added that, while the Declaration of Independence lacks originality in the sense just indicated, in another and perhaps in a higher sense, it possesses originality—it is individualized by the character and by the genius of its author. Jefferson gathered up the thoughts and emotions and even the characteristic phrases of the people for whom he wrote, and these he perfectly incorporated with what was already in his mind, and then to the music of his own keen, rich, passionate, and enkindling style, he mustered them into that stately triumphant procession wherein, as some of us still think, they will go marching on to the world's end.

There were then in Congress several other men who could have written the Declaration of Independence, and written it well—notably Franklin, either of the two Adamses, Richard Henry Lee, William Livingston, and, best of all, but for his own opposition to the measure, John Dickinson; but had any one of these other men written the Declaration of Independence, while it would have contained, doubtless, nearly the same topics and nearly the same great formulas of political statement, it would yet have been a wholly different composition from this of Jefferson's. No one at all familiar with his other writings, as well as with the writings of his chief contemporaries, could ever have a moment's doubt, even if the fact were not already notorious, that this document was by Jefferson. He put into it something that was his own, and that no one else could have put there. He put himself into it—his own genius, his own moral force, his faith in God, his faith in ideas, his love of innovation, his passion for progress, his invincible enthusiasm, his intolerance of prescription, of injustice, of cruelty; his sympathy, his clarity of vision, his affluence of diction, his power to fling out great phrases which will long fire and cheer the souls of men struggling against political unrighteousness.

And herein lies its essential originality, perhaps the most precious, and, indeed, almost the only, originality ever attaching to any great literary product that is representative of its time. He made for himself no improper claim, therefore, when he directed that upon the granite obelisk at his grave should be carved the words: "Here was buried Thomas Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence."

If the Declaration of Independence is now to be fairly judged by us, it must be judged with reference to what it was intended to be—namely, an impassioned manifesto of one party, and that the weaker party, in a violent race-quarrel; of a party resolved, at last, upon the extremity of revolution, and already menaced by the inconceivable disaster of being defeated in the very act of armed rebellion against the mightiest military power on earth. This manifesto, then, is not to be censured because, being avowedly a statement of its own side of the quarrel, it does not also contain a moderate and judicial statement of the opposite side; or because, being necessarily

partisan in method, it is likewise both partisan and vehement in tone; or because it bristles with accusations against the enemy so fierce and so unqualified as now to seem in some respects overdrawn; or because it resounds with certain great aphorisms about the natural rights of man, at which, indeed, political science cannot now smile, except to its own discomfiture and shame—aphorisms which are likely to abide in this world as the chief source and inspiration of heroic enterprises among men for self-deliverance from oppression.

Taking into account, therefore, as we are bound to do, the circumstances of its origin, and especially its purpose as a solemn and piercing appeal to mankind on behalf of a small and weak nation against the alleged injustice and cruelty of a great and powerful one, it still remains our duty to inquire whether, as has been asserted in our time, history must set aside either of the two central charges embodied in the Declaration of Independence.

The first of these charges affirms that the several acts complained of by the colonists evinced "a design to reduce them under absolute despotism," and had as their "direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny" over the American people. Was this, indeed, a groundless charge, in the sense intended by the words "despotism" and "tyranny"—that is, in the sense commonly given to those words in the usage of the English-speaking race? According to that usage, it was not an Oriental despotism that was meant, nor a Greek tyranny, nor a Roman, nor a Spanish. The sort of despot, the sort of tyrant, whom the English people, ever since the time of King John, and especially during the period of the Stuarts, had been accustomed to look for and to guard against, was the sort of tyrant or despot that could be evolved out of the conditions of English political life. Furthermore, he was not by them expected to appear among them at the outset in the fully developed shape of a Philip or an Alva in the Netherlands. They were able to recognize him, they were prepared to resist him, in the earliest and most incipient stage of his being—at the moment, in fact, when he should make his first attempt to gain all power over his people, by assuming the single power to take their property without their consent. Hence it was, as Edmund Burke pointed out in the House of Commons only a few weeks before the American Revolution entered upon its military phase, that:

"The great contests for freedom . . . were from the earliest times chiefly upon the question of taxing. Most of the contests in the ancient commonwealths turned primarily on the right of election of magistrates, or on the balance among the several orders of the state. The question of money was not with them so immediate. But in England it was otherwise. On this point of taxes the ablest pens and most eloquent tongues have been exercised, the greatest spirits have acted and suffered. . . . They took infinite pains to inculcate, as a fundamental principle, that in all monarchies the people must in effect, themselves, mediately or immediately, possess the power of granting their own money, or no shadow of liberty could subsist. The colonies draw from you, as with their life-blood, these ideas and principles. Their love of liberty, as with you, fixed and attached on this specific point of taxing. Liberty might be safe or might be endangered in twenty other particulars without their being much pleased or alarmed. Here they felt its pulse, and as they found that beat, they thought themselves sick or sound."

Accordingly, the meaning which the English race on both sides of the Atlantic were accustomed to attach to the words "tyranny" and "despotism," was a meaning to some degree ideal; it was a meaning drawn from the extraordinary political sagacity with which that race is endowed, from their extraordinary sensitiveness as to the use of the taxing-power in government, from their instinctive perception of the commanding place of the taxing-power among all the other forms of power in the state, from their perfect assurance that he who holds the purse with the power to fill it and to empty it, holds the key of the situation—can maintain an army of his own, can rule without consulting Parliament, can silence criticism, can crush opposition, can strip his subjects of every vestige of political life;

in other words, he can make slaves of them, he can make a despot and a tyrant of himself. Therefore, the system which in the end might develop into results so palpably tyrannic and despotic, they bluntly called a tyranny and a despotism in the beginning. To say, therefore, that the Declaration of Independence did the same, is to say that it spoke good English. Of course, history will be ready to set aside the charge thus made in language not at all liable to be misunderstood, just so soon as history is ready to set aside the common opinion that the several acts of the British government, from 1764 to 1776, for laying and enforcing taxation in America, did evince a somewhat particular and systematic design to take away some portion of the property of the American people without their consent.

The second of the two great charges contained in the Declaration of Independence, while intimating that some share in the blame is due to the British Parliament and to the British people, yet fastens upon the King himself as the one person chiefly responsible for the scheme of American tyranny therein set forth, and culminates in the frank description of him as "a prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant." Is this accusation of George III. now to be set aside as unhistoric? Was that King, or was he not, chiefly responsible for the American policy of the British government between the years 1764 and 1776? If he was so, then the historic soundness of the most important portion of the Declaration of Independence is vindicated.

Fortunately, this question can be answered without hesitation, and in a few words; and for these few words, an American writer of to-day, conscious of his own basis of nationality, will rightly prefer to cite such words as have been uttered upon the subject by the ablest English historians of our time. Upon their statements alone it must be concluded that George III. ascended his throne with the fixed purpose of resuming to the crown many of those powers which, by the constitution of England, did not then belong to it, and that in this purpose, at least during the first twenty-five years of his reign, he substantially succeeded — himself determining what should be the policy of each administration, what opinions his ministers should advocate in Parliament, and what measures Parliament itself should adopt. Says Sir Erskine May:

"The King desired to undertake personally the chief administration of public affairs, to direct the policy of his ministers, and himself to distribute the patronage of the crown. He was ambitious not only to reign, but to govern." "Strong as were the ministers, the King was resolved to wrest all power from their hands, and to exercise it himself." "But what was this in effect but to assert that the King should be his own minister? . . . The King's tactics were fraught with danger, as well to the crown itself as to the constitutional liberties of the people."

Already, prior to the year 1778, according to Lecky, the King had "laboriously built up" in England a "system of personal government"; and it was because he was unwilling to have this system disturbed that he then refused, "in defiance of the most earnest representations of his own minister and of the most eminent politicians of every party . . . to send for the greatest of living statesmen at the moment when the empire appeared to be in the very agonies of dissolution. . . . Either Chatham or Rockingham would have insisted that the policy of the country should be directed by its responsible ministers and not dictated by an irresponsible sovereign."

This refusal of the King to pursue the course which was called for by the constitution, and which would have taken the control of the policy of the government out of his hands, was, according to the same great historian, an act "the most criminal in the whole reign of George III. . . . as criminal as any of those acts which led Charles I. to the scaffold."

Even so early as the year 1768, according to John Richard Green, "George III. had at last reached his aim. . . . In the early days of the ministry" (which began in that year) "his influence was felt to be predominant. In its later and more disastrous days it was supreme; for Lord North, who became the head of the ministry on Grafton's retirement in 1770, was the mere mouthpiece

of the King. 'Not only did he direct the minister,' a careful observer tells us, 'in all important matters of foreign and domestic policy, but he instructed him as to the management of debates in Parliament, suggested what motions should be made or opposed, and how measures should be carried. He reserved for himself all the patronage, he arranged the whole cast of the administration, settled the relative place and pretensions of ministers of state, law officers, and members of the household, nominated and promoted the English and Scotch judges, appointed and translated bishops and deans, and dispensed other preferments in the Church. He disposed of military governments, regiments, and commissions, and himself ordered the marching of troops. He gave and refused titles, honors, and pensions.' All this immense patronage was steadily used for the creation of a party in both Houses of Parliament attached to the King himself. . . . George was, in fact, sole minister during the fifteen years which followed; and the shame of the darkest hour of English history lies wholly at his door."

Surely, until these tremendous verdicts of English history shall be set aside, there need be no anxiety in any quarter as to the historic soundness of the two great accusations which together make up the principal portion of the Declaration of Independence. In the presence of these verdicts also, even the passion, the intensity of language, in which those accusations are uttered, seem to find a perfect justification. Indeed, in the light of the most recent and most unprejudiced expert testimony, the whole document, both in its substance and in its form, seems to have been the logical response of a nation of brave men to the great words of the greatest of English statesmen, as spoken in the House of Commons precisely ten years before:

"This kingdom has no right to lay a tax on the colonies. Sir, I rejoice that America has resisted. Three millions of people, so dead to all the feelings of liberty as voluntarily to submit to be slaves, would have been fit instruments to make slaves of the rest."

Thus, ever since its first announcement to the world, and down almost to the present moment, has the Declaration of Independence been tested by criticism of every possible kind—by criticism intended and expected to be destructive. Apparently, however, all this criticism has failed to accomplish its object.

It is proper for us to remember, also, that what we call criticism is not the only valid test of the genuineness and worth of any piece of writing of great practical interest to mankind: there is, in addition, the test of actual use and service, in direct contact with the common sense and the moral sense of large masses of men, under various conditions, and for a long period. Probably no writing which is not essentially sound and true has ever survived this test.

Neither from this test has the great Declaration any need to shrink. As to the immediate use for which it was sent forth—that of rallying and uniting the friends of the Revolution, and bracing them for their great task—its effectiveness was so great and so obvious that it has never been denied. During the century and a quarter since the Revolution, its influence on the political character and the political conduct of the American people has been great beyond calculation. For example, after we had achieved our own national deliverance, and had advanced into that enormous and somewhat corrupting material prosperity which followed the adoption of the Constitution and the development of the cotton interest and the expansion of the republic into a transcontinental power, we fell under an appalling temptation—the temptation to forget, or to repudiate, or to refuse to apply to the case of our human brethren in bondage, the principles which we had once proclaimed as the basis of every rightful government. The prodigious service rendered to us in this awful moral emergency by the Declaration of Independence was, that its public repetition, at least once every year, in the hearing of vast throngs of the American people in every portion of the republic, kept constantly before our minds, in a form of almost religious sanctity, those few great ideas as to the dignity of human nature, and the sacredness of personality, and the indestructible rights of man as mere man, with which we had so

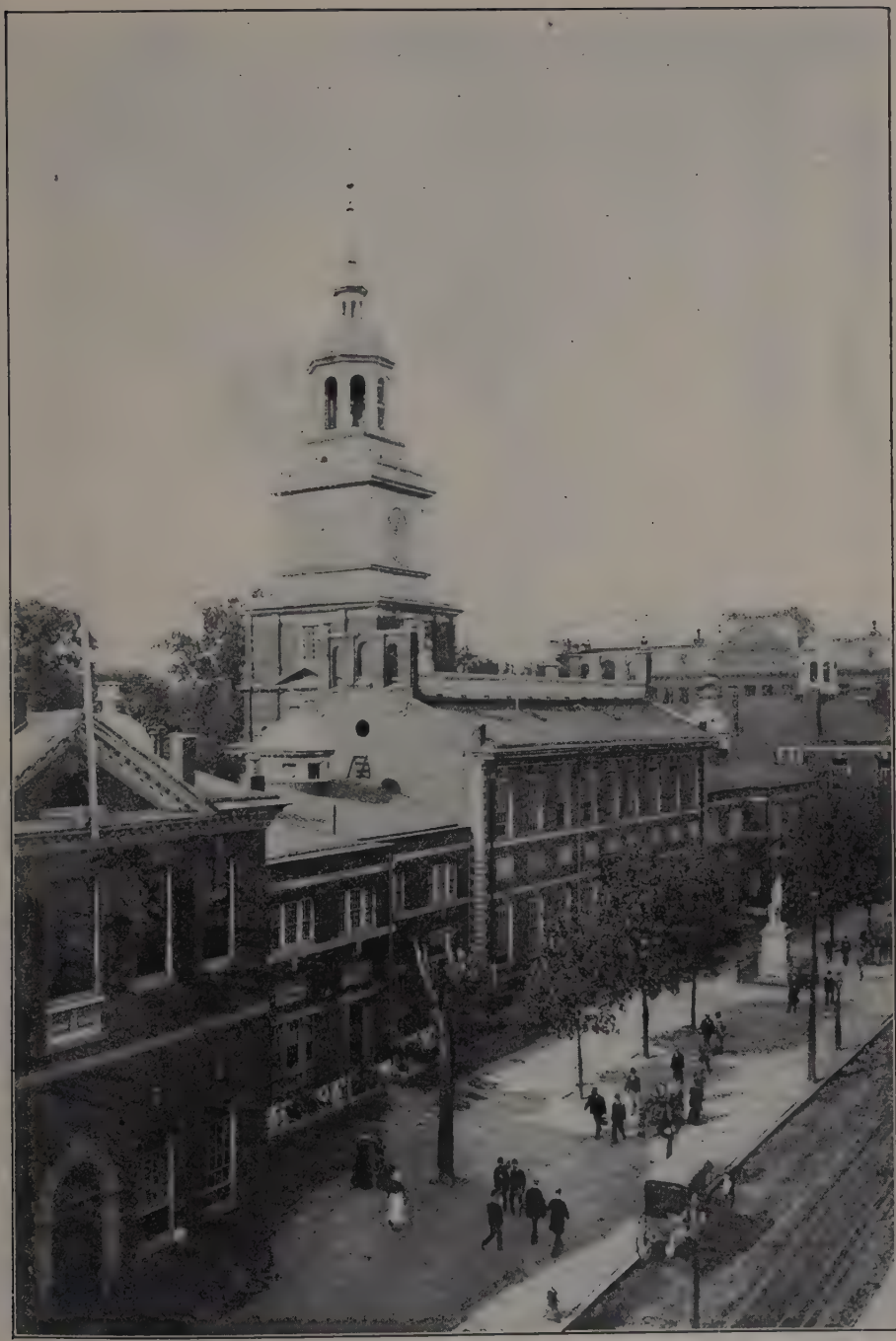
gloriously identified the beginnings of our national existence. It did at last become very hard for us to listen each year to the preamble of the Declaration and still to remain the owners and users and catchers of slaves; still harder, to accept the doctrine that the righteousness and prosperity of slavery was to be accepted as the dominant policy of the nation. The logic of Calhoun was as flawless as usual, when he concluded that the chief obstruction in the way of his system was the preamble of the Declaration of Independence. Had it not been for the inviolable sacredness given by it to those sweeping aphorisms about the natural rights of man, it may be doubted whether Calhoun might not have won over an immense majority of the American people to the support of his compact and plausible scheme for making slavery the basis of the republic. It was the preamble of the Declaration of Independence which elected Lincoln, which sent forth the Emancipation Proclamation, which gave victory to Grant, which ratified the Thirteenth Amendment.

We shall not here attempt to delineate the influence of this state paper upon mankind in general. Of course, the emergence of the American Republic as an imposing world-power is a phenomenon which has now for many years attracted the attention of the human race. Surely, no slight effect must have resulted from the fact that, among all civilized peoples, the one American document best known is the Declaration of Independence, and that thus the spectacle of so vast and beneficent a political success has been everywhere associated with the assertion of the natural rights of man. "The doctrines it contained," says Buckle, "were not merely welcomed by a majority of the French nation, but even the government itself was unable to withstand the general feeling." "Its effect in hastening the approach of the French Revolution . . . was indeed most remarkable." Elsewhere, also, in many lands, among many peoples, it has been cited again and again as an inspiration to political courage, as a model for political conduct; and if, as the brilliant historian just alluded to has affirmed, "that noble Declaration . . . ought to be hung up in the nursery of every king, and blazoned on the porch of every royal palace," it is because it has become the classic statement of political truths which must at last abolish kings altogether, or else teach them to identify their existence with the dignity and happiness of human nature.

Declaration of Independence, DUTCH. The following is the text of the declaration of the States General of the United Provinces, setting forth that Philip II. had forfeited his right of sovereignty over the said provinces, promulgated at The Hague, July 26, 1581:

The States General of the United Provinces of the Low Countries, to all whom it may concern, do by these Presents send greeting:

As 'tis apparent to all that a prince is constituted by God to be ruler of a people, to defend them from oppression and violence as the shepherd his sheep; and whereas God did not create the people slaves to their prince, to obey his commands, whether right or wrong, but rather the prince for the sake of the subjects (without which he could be no prince), to govern them according to equity, to love and support them as a father his children or a shepherd his flock, and even at the hazard of life to defend and preserve them. And when he does not behave thus, but, on the contrary, oppresses them, seeking opportunities to infringe their ancient customs and privileges, exacting from them slavish compliance, then he is no longer a prince, but a tyrant, and the subjects are to consider him in no other view. And particularly when this is done deliberately, unauthorized by the States, they may not only disallow his authority, but legally proceed to the choice of another prince for their defence. This is the only method left for subjects whose humble petitions and remonstrances could never soften their prince or dissuade him from his tyrannical proceedings; and this is what the law of nature dictates for the defence of liberty, which we ought to transmit to posterity, even at the hazard of our lives. And this we have seen done frequently in several countries upon the like occasion, whereof there are notorious instances, and more justifiable in our land, which has



INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA, IN THE CENTENNIAL YEAR

been always governed according to their ancient privileges, which are expressed in the oath taken by the prince at his admission to the government; for most of the provinces receive their prince upon certain conditions, which he swears to maintain, which, if the prince violates, he is no longer sovereign. Now thus it was with the King of Spain after the demise of the Emperor, his father, Charles the Fifth, of glorious memory (of whom he received all these provinces), forgetting the services done by the subjects of these countries, both to his father and himself, by whose valor he got so glorious and memorable victories over his enemies that his name and power became famous and dreaded over all the world, forgetting also the advice of his said imperial majesty, made to him before to the contrary, did rather hearken to the counsel of those Spaniards about him, who had conceived a secret hatred to this land and to its liberty, because they could not enjoy posts of honor and high employments here under the States as in Naples, Sicily, Milan, and the Indies, and other countries under the King's dominion. Thus allured by the riches of the said provinces, wherewith many of them were well acquainted, the said counsellors, I say, or the principal of them, frequently remonstrated to the King that it was more for his majesty's reputation and grandeur to subdue the Low Countries a second time, and to make himself absolute (by which they mean to tyrannize at pleasure), than to govern according to the restrictions he had accepted, and at his admission sworn to observe. From that time forward the King of Spain, following these evil counsellors, sought by all means possible to reduce this country (stripping them of their ancient privileges) to slavery, under the government of Spaniards having first, under the mask of religion, endeavored to settle new bishops in the largest and principal cities, endowing and incorporating them with the richest abbeys, assigning to each bishop nine canons to assist him as counsellors, three whereof should superintend the inquisition. By this incorporation the said bishops (who might be strangers as well as natives) would have had the first place and vote in the assembly of the States, and always the prince's creatures at devotion; and by the addition of the said canons he would have introduced the Spanish inquisition, which has been always as dreadful and detested in these provinces as the worst of slavery, as is well known, in so much that his imperial majesty, having once before proposed it to these States, and upon whose remonstrances did desist, and entirely gave it up, hereby giving proof of the great affection he had for his subjects. But, notwithstanding the many remonstrances made to the King both by the provinces and particular towns, in writing as well as by some principal lords by word of mouth; and, namely, by the Baron of Montigny and Earl of Egmont, who with the approbation of the Duchess of Parma, then governess of the Low Countries, by the advice of the council of State were sent several times to Spain upon this affair. And, although the King had by fair words given them grounds to hope that their request should be complied with, yet by his letters he ordered the contrary, soon after expressly commanding, upon pain of his displeasure, to admit the new bishops immediately, and put them in possession of their bishoprics and incorporated abbeys, to hold the court of the inquisition in the places where it had been before, to obey and follow the decrees and ordinances of the Council of Trent, which in many articles are destructive of the privileges of the country. This being come to the knowledge of the people gave just occasion to great uneasiness and clamor among them, and lessened that good affection they had always borne toward the King and his predecessors. And, especially, seeing that he did not only seek to tyrannize over their persons and estates, but also over their consciences, for which they believed themselves accountable to God only. Upon this occasion the chief of the nobility in compassion to the poor people, in the year 1566, exhibited a certain remonstrance in form of a petition, humbly praying, in order to appease them and prevent public disturbances, that it would please his majesty (by shewing that clemency due from a good prince to his people) to soften the said points, and especially with regard to the rigorous inquisition, and capital punishments for

matters of religion. And to inform the King of this affair in a more solemn manner, and to represent to him how necessary it was for the peace and prosperity of the public to remove the aforesaid innovations, and moderate the severity of his declarations published concerning divine worship, the Marquis de Berghen, and the aforesaid Baron of Montigny had been sent, at the request of the said lady regent, council of state, and of the States General as ambassadors to Spain, where the King, instead of giving them audience, and redress the grievances they had complained of (which for want of a timely remedy did always appear in their evil consequences among the common people), did, by the advice of Spanish council, declare all those who were concerned in preparing the said remonstrance to be rebels, and guilty of high treason, and to be punished with death, and confiscation of their estates; and, what's more (thinking himself well assured of reducing these countries under absolute tyranny by the army of the Duke of Alva), did soon after imprison and put to death the said lords the ambassadors, and confiscated their estates, contrary to the law of nations, which has been always religiously observed even among the most tyrannic and barbarous princes. And, although the said disturbances, which in the year 1566 happened on the fore-mentioned occasion, were now appeased by the governess and her ministers, and many friends to liberty were either banished or subdued, in so much that the King had not any shew of reason to use arms and violences, and further oppress this country, yet for these causes and reasons, long time before sought by the council of Spain (as appears by intercepted letters from the Spanish ambassador, Alana, then in France, writ to the Duchess of Parma), to annul all the privileges of this country, and govern it tyrannically at pleasure as in the Indies; and in their new conquests he has, at the instigation of the council of Spain (shewing the little regard he had for his people, so contrary to the duty which a good prince owes to his subjects), sent the Duke of Alva with a powerful army to oppress this land, who for his inhumane cruelties is looked upon as one of its greatest enemies, accompanied with counsellors too like himself. And, although he came in without the least opposition, and was received by the poor subjects with all marks of honor and respects, as expecting no less from him than tenderness and clemency, which the King had often hypocritically promised in his letters, and that himself intended to come in person to give orders to their general satisfaction, having since the departure of the Duke of Alva equipped a fleet to carry him from Spain, and another in Zealand to come to meet him at the great expense of the country, the better to deceive his subjects, and allure them into the toils, nevertheless the said duke, immediately after his arrival (though a stranger, and no way related to the royal family), declared that he had a captain-general's commission, and soon after that of governor of these provinces, contrary to all its ancient customs and privileges; and, the more to manifest his designs, he immediately garrisons the principal towns and castles, and caused fortresses and citadels to be built in the great cities to awe them into subjection, and very courteously sent for the chief nobility in the King's name, under pretence of taking their advice, and to employ them in the service of their country. And those who believed his letters were seized and carried out of Brabant, contrary to law, where they were imprisoned and prosecuted as criminals before him who had no right, nor could be a competent judge; and at last he, without hearing their defence at large, sentenced them to death, which was publicly and ignominiously executed. The others, better acquainted with Spanish hypocrisy, residing in foreign countries, were declared outlawries, and had their estates confiscated, so that the poor subjects could make no use of their fortresses nor be assisted by their princes in defence of their liberty against the violence of the pope; besides a great number of other gentlemen and substantial citizens, some of whom were executed, and others banished that their estates might be confiscated, plaguing the other honest inhabitants, not only by the injuries done to their wives, children, and estates by the Spanish soldiers lodged in their houses, as likewise

by diverse contributions, which they were forced to pay toward building citadels and new fortifications of towns even to their own ruin, besides the taxes of the hundredth, twentieth and ten the penny, to pay both the foreign and those raised in the country, to be employed against their fellow-citizens and against those who at the hazard of their lives defended their liberties. In order to impoverish the subjects, and to incapacitate them to hinder his design, and that he might with more ease execute the instructions received in Spain, to treat these countries as new conquests, he began to alter the course of justice after the Spanish mode, directly contrary to our privileges; and, imagining at last he had nothing more to fear, he endeavored by main force to settle a tax called the tenth penny on merchandise and manufactury, to the total ruin of these countries, the prosperity of which depends upon a flourishing trade, notwithstanding frequent remonstrances, not by a single province only, but by all of them united, which he had effected, had it not been for the Prince of Orange with diverse gentlemen and other inhabitants, who had followed this prince in his exile, most of whom were in his pay, and banished by the Duke of Alva with others who espoused the liberty of their country. Soon after the provinces of Holland and Zealand for the most part revolted, putting themselves under the protection of the Prince of Orange, against which provinces the said duke during his government, and the great commander (whom the King sent to these countries, not to heal the evil, but to pursue the same tyrannical courses by more secret and cautious methods) who succeeded him, forced the provinces, who by garrisons and citadels were already reduced under the Spanish yoke, both with their lives and fortunes to conquer them, shewing no more mercy to those they employ to assist them than if they had been enemies, permitting the Spaniards, under pretence of mutiny, to enter the city of Antwerp forcibly, in the sight of the great commander, and to live there at discretion for the space of six weeks at the expense of the inhabitants, and obliging them (to be free from Spanish violence) to furnish the sum of four hundred thousand florins for the payment of the troops. After which the said troops, made more insolent by the connivance of their commanders, proceeded to open violence, endeavoring first to surprise the city of Brussels, the prince's usual residence, to be the magazine of their plunder; but, not succeeding in that, they took by force the town of Alost, and after that surprised and forced Maestricht, and soon after the said city of Antwerp, which they plundered and burnt, and massacred the inhabitants in a most barbarous manner, to the irreparable loss not only of the citizens, but to all nations who had any effects there. And notwithstanding the said Spaniards had been, by the council of state (upon which the King, after the decease of the great commander, had conferred the government of the country) in the presence of Jeronimo de Rhoda, declared enemies to the States, by reason of their outrageous violences, nevertheless the said Rhoda, upon his own authority (or as it is imagined) by virtue of certain private instructions which he might possibly have received from Spain, undertook to head the Spaniards and their accomplices, and to use the King's name (in defiance of the said council) and authority, to counterfeit the great seal, and act openly as governor and lieutenant-general, which gave occasion to the States at the same time to agree with the aforesaid Prince of Orange, in conjunction with the provinces of Holland and Zealand, which agreement was approved by the said council of state (as the only legal governors of the country), to declare war unanimously against the Spaniards as their common enemy, to drive them out of the country; at the same time, like good subjects, making use of all proper applications, humbly petitioning the King to have compassion on account of the calamities already suffered, and of the greater expected hourly, unless his majesty would withdraw his troops, and exemplarily punish the authors of the plundering and burning of our principal cities as some small satisfaction to the distressed inhabitants, and to deter others from committing the like violences. Nevertheless, the King would have us believe that all this was transacted without his knowledge, and that he intended to punish the authors, and that for the future

we might expect all tenderness and clemency, and as a gracious prince would give all necessary orders to procure the public peace. And yet he not only neglected to do us justice in punishing the offenders; that, on the contrary, it is plain all was done by orders concerted in the council of Spain; for soon after the letters were intercepted directed to Rhoda and other captains, who were the authors of all our miseries, under the King's own hand, in which he not only approves of their proceedings, but even praises and promises them rewards, and particularly to the said Rhoda as having done him singular services, which he performed to him and to all the rest who were ministers of his tyranny, upon his return to Spain. And, the more to blind his subjects, he sent at the same time Don John, his natural brother, as of his blood, to govern these countries, who under pretence of approving the treaty of Ghent confirming the promise made to the States of driving out the Spaniards, of punishing the authors of the disturbances, of settling the public peace, and of re-establishing their ancient liberties, endeavored to divide the said estates in order to enslave one after another, which was soon after discovered by the providence of God, who is an enemy to all tyranny, by certain intercepted letters, from which it appeared that he was charged by the King to follow the instructions of Rhoda; and, the better to conceal this fraud, they were forbidden to see one another, but that he should converse friendly with the principal lord of the country, that, gaining them over to his party, he might by their assistance reduce Holland and Zealand, after which the other provinces would be easily subdued. Whereupon Don John, notwithstanding his solemn promise and oath, in the presence of all the aforesaid States, to observe the pacification of Ghent, and other articles stipulated between him and the States of all the provinces, on the contrary sought, by all possible promises made to the colonels already at his devotion, to gain the German troops, who were then garrisoned in the principal fortresses and the cities, that by their assistance he might master them, as he had gained many of them already, and held them attached to his interest in order, by their assistance, to force those who would not join with him in making war against the Prince of Orange, and the provinces of Holland and Zealand, more cruel and bloody than any war before. But, as no disguises can long conceal our intentions, this project was discovered before it could be executed; and he, unable to perform his promises, and instead of that peace so much boasted of at his arrival a new war kindled, not yet extinguished. All these considerations give us more than sufficient reason to renounce the King of Spain, and seek some other powerful and more gracious prince to take us under his protection; and, more especially, as these countries have been for these twenty years abandoned to disturbance and oppression by their King, during which time the inhabitants were not treated as subjects, but enemies, enslaved forcibly by their own governors.

Having also, after the decease of Don John, sufficiently declared by the Baron de Selles that he would not allow the pacification of Ghent, the which Don John had in his majesty's name sworn to maintain, but daily proposing new terms of agreement less advantageous. Notwithstanding these discouragements we used all possible means, by petitions in writing and the good offices of the greatest princes in Christendom, to be reconciled to our King, having lastly maintained for a long time our deputies at the Congress of Cologne, hoping that the intercession of his imperial majesty and of the electors would procure an honorable and lasting peace, and some degree of liberty, particularly relating to religion (which chiefly concerns God and our own consciences), at last we found by experience that nothing would be obtained of the King by prayers and treaties, which latter he made use of to divide and weaken the provinces, that he might the easier execute his plan rigorously, by subduing them one by one, which afterwards plainly appeared by certain proclamations and proscriptions published by the King's orders, by virtue of which we and all officers and inhabitants of the United Provinces with all our friends are declared rebels, and as such, to have forfeited our lives and estates. Thus, by rendering us

odious to all, he might interrupt our commerce, likewise reducing us to despair, offering a great sum to any that would assassinate the Prince of Orange. So, having no hope of reconciliation, and finding no other remedy, we have, agreeable to the law of nature in our own defence, and for maintaining the rights, privileges, and liberties of our countrymen, wives, and children, and latest posterity from being enslaved by the Spaniards, been constrained to renounce allegiance to the King of Spain, and pursue such methods as appear to us most likely to secure our ancient liberties and privileges. Know all men by these presents that, being reduced to the last extremity, as above mentioned, we have unanimously and deliberately declared, and do by these presents declare, that the King of Spain has forfeited, *ipso jure*, all hereditary rights to the sovereignty of those countries, and are determined from henceforward not to acknowledge his sovereignty or jurisdiction, nor any act of his relating to the domains of the Low Countries, nor make use of his name as prince, nor suffer others to do it. In consequence whereof we also declare all officers, judges, lords, gentlemen, vassals, and all other the inhabitants of this country of what condition or quality soever, to be henceforth discharged from all oaths and obligations whatsoever made to the King of Spain as sovereign of those countries. And whereas, upon the motives already mentioned, the greater part of the United Provinces have, by common consent of their members, submitted to the government and sovereignty of the illustrious Prince and Duke of Anjou, upon certain conditions stipulated with his highness, and whereas the most serene Archduke Matthias has resigned the government of these countries with our approbation, we command and order all justiciaries, officers, and all whom it may concern, not to make use of the name, titles, great or privy seal of the King of Spain from henceforward; but in lieu of them, as long as his highness the Duke of Anjou is absent upon urgent affairs relating to the welfare of these countries, having so agreed with his highness or otherwise, they shall provisionally use the name and title of the president and council of the province. And, until such a president and counsellors shall be nominated, assembled, and act in that capacity, they shall act in our name, except that in Holland and Zealand where they shall use the name of the Prince of Orange, and of the States of the said provinces till the aforesaid council shall legally sit, and then shall conform to the directions of that council agreeable to the contract made with his highness. And, instead of the King's seal aforesaid, they shall make use of our great seal, contreseal, and signet, in affairs relating to the public, according as the said council shall from time to time be authorized. And in affairs concerning the administration of justice, and transactions peculiar to each province, the provincial council and other councils of that country shall use respectively the name, title, and seal of the said province, where the case is to be tried, and no other, on pain of having all letters, documents, and despatches annulled. And, for the better and effectual performance hereof, we have ordered and commanded, and do hereby order and command, that all the seals of the King of Spain which are in these United Provinces shall immediately, upon the publication of these presents, be delivered to the estate of each province respectively, or to such persons as by the said estates shall be authorized and appointed, upon peril of discretionary punishment.

Moreover, we order and command that from henceforth no money coined shall be stamped with the name, title, or arms of the King of Spain in any of these United Provinces, but that all new gold and silver pieces, with their halves and quarters, shall only bear such impressions as the States shall direct. We order likewise and command the president and other lords of the privy council, and all other chancellors, presidents, and lords of the provincial council, and all presidents, accountant-general, and to others in all the chambers of accounts respectively in these said countries, and likewise to all other judges and officers, as we hold them discharged from henceforth of their oath made to the King of Spain, pursuant to the tenor of their commission, that they shall take a new oath to the States of that country on whose jurisdiction they

depend, or to commissaries appointed by them, to be true to us against the King of Spain and all his adherents, according to the formula of words prepared by the States General for that purpose. And we shall give to the said counsellors, justiciaries, and officers employed in these provinces, who have contracted in our name with his highness the Serenisme, Duke of Anjou, an act to continue them in their respective offices, instead of new commissions, a clause annulling the former provisionally till the arrival of his highness. Moreover to all such counsellors, accomptants, justiciaries, and officers in these provinces, who have not contracted with his highness aforesaid, we shall grant new commissions under our hands and seals, unless any of the said officers are accused and convicted of having acted under their former commissions against the liberties and privileges of this country or of other the like maladministration. We further command the president and members of the privy council, chancellor of the Duchy of Brabant, also the chancellor of the Duchy of Gueldres, and county of Zutphen, to the president and members of the council of Holland, to the receivers of great officers of Beoosterscheldt and Bewesterscheldt in Zealand, to the president and council of Frise, and to the Escoulet of Mechelen, to the president and members of the council of Utrecht, and to all other justiciaries and officers whom it may concern, to the lieutenants all and every of them, to cause this our ordinance to be published and proclaimed throughout their respective jurisdictions, in the usual places appointed for that purpose, that none may plead ignorance. And to cause our said ordinance to be observed inviolably, punishing the offenders impartially and without delay; for so 'tis found expedient for the public good. And, for better maintaining all and every article hereof, we give to all and every of you, by express command, full power and authority. In witness wherof we have hereunto set our hands and seals, dated in our assembly at the Hague, the six and twentieth day of July, 1581, indorsed by the orders of the States General, and signed J. DE ASSELIERS.

Declaration of Independence, MECKLENBURG, a document alleged to have comprised a number of resolutions adopted at a meeting of the citizens of Mecklenburg county, N. C., in May, 1775, thus antedating by more than a year that which is now universally recognized as the American Declaration of Independence. The Mecklenburg Declaration has been a subject of historical controversy from the time that it was first made public, and this controversy has given birth to a literature which sharply questions the authenticity of the declaration. The circumstances alleged under which this declaration was made known are, in brief, as follows: In the spring of 1775, Col. Adam Alexander called upon the people of Mecklenburg county to appoint delegates to a convention to devise ways and means to assist their brethren in Boston. The delegates met in Charlotte on May 19, almost immediately after the receipt of news of the battle of Lexington. Colonel Alexander was elected chairman, and John McKnitt Alexander clerk of the convention. After a free and full discussion of the various objects for which the convention had been called, it was unanimously ordained:

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1. Resolved, that whosoever directly or indirectly abetted, or in any way, form, or manner, countenanced the unchartered and dangerous invasions of our rights, as claimed by Great Britain, is an enemy to this country, to American, and to the inherent and inalienable rights of man.

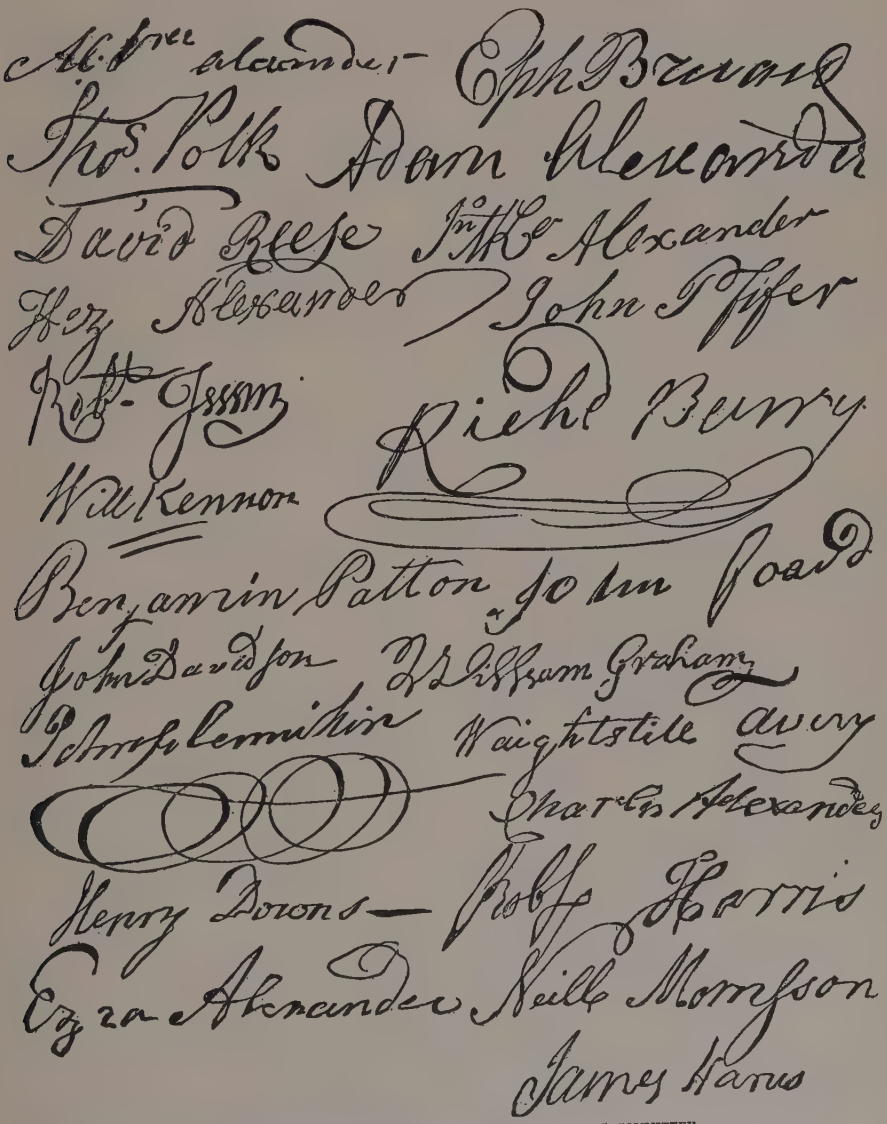
2. Resolved, that we, the citizens of Mecklenburg county, do hereby dissolve the political bands which have connected us to the mother-country, and hereby absolve ourselves from allegiance to the British crown, and abjure all political connection, contract, or association with that nation, who have wantonly trampled on our rights and liberties, and inhumanly shed the innocent blood of American patriots at Lexington.

3. Resolved, that we do hereby declare ourselves a free and independent people; are, and of right ought to be, a sovereign and self-governing association, under the control of no power other than that of our God and the general government of the Congress; to the maintenance of which independence we solemnly pledge to each other our mutual co-operation,

our lives, our fortunes, and our most sacred honor.

4. Resolved, that, as we acknowledge the existence and control of no law or legal officer, civil or military, within this county, we do hereby ordain and adopt, as a rule of life, all, each, and every of our former laws; wherein, nevertheless, the crown of Great Britain never can be considered as holding rights, privileges, immunities, or authority therein.

5. Resolved, that it is also further decreed that all, each, and every military officer in this county is hereby reinstated to his former command and authority, he acting conformably to these



AUTOGRAPHS OF THE MEMBERS OF THE MECKLENBURG COMMITTEE

regulations, and that every member present of this delegation shall henceforth be a civil officer—*viz.*, a justice of the peace in the character of a "committee-man," to issue process, hear and determine all matter of controversy, according to said adopted laws, and to preserve peace and union and harmony in said county, and to use every exertion to spread the love of country and fire of freedom throughout America, until a more general and organized government be established in this province.

On May 20, the resolutions were unanimously adopted. Capt. James Jack, of Charlotte, was appointed messenger to convey a draft of the resolutions to the Congress then in session in Philadelphia.

On April 30, 1818, a copy of the alleged Declaration of Independence was first made public in the Raleigh *Register*, and following the text was a certificate signed "James McKnitt," tending to show that the text was a true copy of the papers left in his hands by John Matthew Alexander, deceased; and that the original book was burned in April, 1800. When the Raleigh *Register* published this statement there was a general demand for the proof concerning such an important event, that had been allowed to slumber for more than forty years. All the questions involved were investigated by a committee of the North Carolina legislature in 1831, and its report so far satisfied the people of that State that May 20 was made a State holiday. In 1838, Peter Force, a well-known scholar, announced the discovery of another set of resolutions, endorsed as having been adopted by the people of Mecklenburg county on May 31, or eleven days after the resolutions above quoted. The last set of resolutions numbered twenty, and made no declaration of independence. Some parties who defended the resolutions of May 20 claimed that there should be no question as to the mere day of the month, on the ground that this discrepancy was explainable by the use of the old style and the new style of calendars; but they ignored the facts that the two sets of resolutions were dissimilar, that the latter were comparatively mild, and that the former contained expressions almost identical with the accepted Declaration of Independence of 1776. The fact has been established by acceptable evidence that the document taken to Philadelphia by Captain Jack contained the twenty resolutions of May 31, and not the declaration of May 20. The foregoing are the principal facts touching this historical controversy.

Declaration of London. A conference of the chief naval Powers was held in London from December, 1908, to February, 1909, with the view of arriving at an agreement as to the rules regarding prizes in naval warfare, the object being to draw up a definite code—following the precedent of the Declaration of Paris in 1856—for the purposes of the International Prize Court to be established in accordance with one of the Conventions of the second Hague Conference in 1907. The result was the Declaration of London, signed by the representatives of the chief naval powers. The Declaration provides that a blockade, to be binding on neutrals, "must be maintained by a force sufficient really to prevent access to the enemy's coastline." Contraband is divided into two lists —*viz.:* Absolute Contraband, comprising articles exclusively or mainly used in war; and Conditional Contraband, comprising articles likely to be used either for warlike or peaceful purposes, and liable to capture only "if it is shown to be destined for the use of the armed forces or a government department of the enemy State." Other articles of a similar nature may be added to either list, if duly notified to neutrals by declaration; but "articles which are not susceptible of use in war may not be declared contraband of war." A compromise is made on the doctrine of "continuous voyage," which considers the destination of the cargo rather than that of the ship, and is to be maintained as to absolute contraband, but not as to conditional contraband. The latter, therefore, is not liable to capture, whatever its ultimate destination, if it is to be discharged from the ship at some intervening neutral port, unless the enemy country has no seaboard. The ship conveying contraband can itself be condemned if such contraband forms more than half the cargo either in value, weight, volume, or freight.

The destruction of neutral prizes or of their cargo is not permitted unless it can

be justified by reason of "exceptional necessity." The question of the enemy character of ship or cargo depends upon the flag of the ship and the ownership of the cargo. Further articles of the Declaration deal with unneutral service of neutral ships—such as the conveyance of troops or of individuals belonging to the armed forces of the enemy; the transfer to a neutral flag of enemy merchant-ships, before or after the beginning of hostilities; neutral vessels under convoy, which are to be immune from search, subject to a declaration as to the ships and their cargoes from the commander of the convoy; resistance to search; and compensation to injured neutrals. The conference failed to agree on the question of the conversion of a merchant-ship into a war-ship on the high seas. In December, 1911, the English House of Lords rejected the ratification of the London Declaration. See CONTRABAND; NEUTRALITY.

Declaration of Paris. The representatives of Great Britain, Austria, France, Russia, Prussia, and Turkey, assembled in congress in Paris, April 16, 1856, adopted the following declaration: 1. Privateering is, and remains, abolished. 2. Neutral flag covers enemy's goods with the exception of contraband of war. 3. Neutral goods, with the exception of contraband of war, are not liable to capture under enemy's flag. 4. Blockades, to be binding, must be effective.

The United States refused to accept this declaration unless an additional article was added entirely exempting private property, even of citizens of belligerents, from capture on the sea, either by privateers or national vessels.

Declaration of Rights by Virginia. George Mason drafted for Virginia a declaration of rights, and on May 27, 1776, Archibald Carey presented it to the Virginia convention. On June 12 it was adopted. It declared that all men are by nature equally free, and are invested with inalienable rights—namely, the enjoyment of life, liberty, property, and the pursuit of happiness and safety; that all power is vested in, and consequently derived from, the people; that government is, or ought to be, instituted for the common benefit and security of the people, nation, or community, and that when government shall fail to perform its required functions a majority of the people have an inalienable right to reform or abolish it; that, public services not being descendible, the office of magistrate, legislator, or judge ought not to be hereditary; that the legislative and executive powers of the state should be distinct from the judicature, and that the members of the first two should, at fixed periods, return unto the body from which they were originally taken, and the vacancies be supplied by frequent elections; that elections ought to be free; that all men having a permanent interest in and attachment to the country have the right of suffrage, and cannot be taxed or deprived of their property for public uses without their own consent or that of their representatives freely elected, nor bound by any law to which they have not, in like manner, assented; that there ought to be no arbitrary power for suspending laws, for requiring excessive bail, or for granting of general warrants; that no man ought to be deprived of liberty except by the law of the land or the judgment of his peers, holding sacred the ancient trial by jury; that the freedom of the press is one of the greatest bulwarks of liberty, and can never be restrained but by despotic governments; that a well-regulated militia, composed of the body of the people, trained to arms, is the proper, natural, and safe defence of a free state; that standing armies in times of peace should be avoided as dangerous to liberty, and in all cases the military should be under strict subordination to the civil power; that the people have a right to uniform government; that no free government can be preserved but by a firm adherence to justice, moderation, temperance, frugality, and virtue, and by frequent recurrences to fundamental principles; and that religion can be directed only by reason and conviction, not by force or violence; therefore all men are equally entitled to the free exercise of it according to the dictates of conscience. The unanimous voice of the convention approved of this declaration.

Declaration of War. By the United States Constitution the Declaration of War is a power exercised by Congress alone.

Declaratory Act, THE. Pitt concluded his speech in the British House of Com-

mons against the Stamp Act by a proposition for its absolute and immediate repeal, at the same time recommending an act, to accompany the repeal, declaring, in the most unqualified terms, the sovereign authority of Great Britain over her colonies. This was intended as a salve for the national honor, necessary, as Pitt knew, to secure the repeal of the act. But Lord Camden, who was the principal supporter of the repeal bill in the Upper House, was opposed to the declaratory act, and vehemently declared that "taxation and representation are inseparable." The declaratory act became a law, but it was distasteful to thinking Americans, for it involved the kernel of royal prerogative, which the colonists rejected. But it was overlooked. Pitt had the honor of the repeal. The London merchants lauded him as a benefactor, and there was a burst of gratitude towards him in America. New York voted a statue to Pitt and the King; Virginia voted a statue to the monarch; Maryland passed a similar vote, and ordered a portrait of Lord Camden; and the authorities of Boston ordered full-length portraits of Barré and Conway, friends of the Americans, for Faneuil Hall.

Decoration Day. See MEMORIAL DAY.

De Costa, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, clergyman; born in Charlestown, Mass., July 10, 1831; graduated at the Concord Biblical Institute in 1856; entered the Protestant Episcopal ministry in 1857; was a chaplain in the National army in 1861–63; joined the Roman Catholic Church in 1899; is the author of *The Pre-Columbian Discovery of America by the Northmen; The Northmen in Maine; Verrazano, the Explorer*, etc. He died in New York City, Nov. 4, 1904.

Deep Bottom, Va. In Grant's Virginia campaign in 1864 this place, then held by General Foster, was attacked by a part of Lee's army without success, June 21. A counter attack by the Nationals was ordered July 26 and 27, which was partly successful. The Confederates retired to Chapin's Bluff, which they continued to hold.

Deep-Sea Exploration. In August, 1899, the United States ship *Albatross* left San Francisco for the purpose of deep-sea exploration, examination of coral reefs, etc., in Oceanica. The first sounding was made near Marquesas at a depth of 1,955 fathoms. It seemed to prove that this group of islands rises from a plateau 2,000 fathoms deep and 50 miles wide. A deep basin was also developed by the soundings of the *Albatross*, varying in depth from 1,000 to 2,500 fathoms. Numerous soundings were taken in the North Pacific by vessels of the United States Navy in 1900 for the purpose of developing feasible cable routes between the Hawaiian and Philippine Islands. These soundings furnish valuable additions to our knowledge of the shape of the bottom of the sea, which heretofore chiefly depended on the soundings by the *Tuscarora*, in 1874, the *Challenger*, in 1875, and the *Albatross* in 1888. A sounding of 5,269 fathoms, about 70 miles to the s. e. of Guam Island by the *Nero*, in 1899, was taken in a locality near where the *Challenger*, in 1875, took its greatest sounding (4,475 fathoms). This is the greatest reliable depth that has ever been attained by sounding, surpassing those by Peguin, in the South Pacific, taken in 1896 (5,022, 5,147, and 5,155 fathoms).

Deerfield, a town on the west bank of the Connecticut River, in Franklin county, Mass.; notable as having been twice the victim of a foray by French and Indians. During King Philip's War a terrible slaughter occurred a mile from the town, Sept. 18 (O. S.), 1675. The Indians had burned Deerfield, Brookfield, and Northfield, and murdered some of the inhabitants. The survivors fled, leaving about 3,000 bushels of wheat in stacks in the field. Capt. Thomas Lothrop, commanding part of a force at Hadley, was sent with eighty men to secure this grain. As they approached Deerfield they fell into an Indian ambush, and the captain and seventy-six men were slain. In 1704, a party of French and Indians, under Maj. Hertel de Rouville, who had travelled on snow-shoes from Canada, approached Deerfield. The chief object of the expedition was to procure a little bell hung over the meeting-house in that village. It had been bought in France for the church in the Indian village of Caughnawaga, 10 miles above Montreal. The vessel that bore it to America was captured by a New England privateer and taken into Boston Harbor. The bell was

sold to the Deerfield congregation. Father Nicolas, the priest at Caughnawaga, persuaded the Indians to accompany him, under De Rouville, to get the bell. When the invaders approached Deerfield, the snow lay 4 feet deep in that region, and was covered by a hard crust that bore the men. Upon drifts that lay by the palisades they were able to crawl over these defences in the gloom of night, while the inhabitants were slumbering. The first intimation the villagers had of danger was the bursting in of the doors before the dawn (March 1, 1704) and the terrible sound of the war-whoop. The people were dragged from their beds and murdered, without regard to age or sex, or carried into captivity. The village was set on fire, and every building, excepting the chapel and one dwelling-house, was laid in ashes. Forty-seven of the inhabitants were killed, and 120 were captives on their way through the wilderness towards Canada an hour after sunrise. Under the direction of Father Nicolas, the bell was carried away, and finally found its destined place in the belfry of the church at Caughnawaga, where it still hangs. Among the victims of this foray were Rev. John Williams (*q. v.*), pastor of the church at Deerfield, and his family, who were carried into captivity, excepting two children, who were murdered. See Hadley, Attack on.

Deerhound, the name of an English yacht, which, while conveying arms to the Carlists, was seized by the Spanish government vessel *Buenaventura*, off Biarritz, and captain and crew imprisoned, Aug. 13, 1873; and released about Sept. 18. This yacht rescued Captain Semmes and part of his crew from the *Alabama* after her destruction by the *Kearsarge*, June 19, 1864.

Defective Classes. See Blind, Education of the; Deaf Mutes; Dependent Children, Education of the; Feeble-Minded, Education of the; and Reform Schools.

De Forest, John William, military officer; born in Humphreysville (now Seymour), Conn., March 31, 1826; entered the National army as captain at the beginning of the Civil War; served continuously till January, 1865; and was adjutant-general of the Veteran Reserve Corps in 1865–68. His publications include *The History of the Indians of Connecticut; The De Forests of Avernes and New Netherland*, etc. He died in New Haven, Conn., July 17, 1906.

De Grasse, Count. See Grasse-Tilly, Francois Joseph Paul, Count de.

De Haas, John Philip, military officer; born in Holland about 1735; was descended from an ancient family in northern France; came to America in 1750; was an ensign in the French and Indian War; participated in a sharp conflict with Indians near Pittsburg; and was colonel of the 1st Pennsylvania Regiment in 1776. He served in the American army in Canada, and afterwards at Ticonderoga. He led his regiment from Lake Champlain to New York, and participated in the battle on Long Island in August, 1776. In February, 1777, he was promoted to brigadier-general. The latter years of his life were passed in Philadelphia, where he died June 3, 1786.

De Haven, Edwin J., explorer; born in Philadelphia in 1819; entered the navy as midshipman, rose to lieutenant in 1841, and resigned in 1857. He was with Wilkes in his great exploring expedition in 1838–42, and commanded the first exploring expedition fitted out at New York to search for Sir John Franklin in the Arctic seas. The expedition consisted of the *Advance*, 140 tons, and the *Rescue*, 90 tons. Dr. Kane, who accompanied the expedition, published a full account of it. He died in Philadelphia, Oct. 2, 1865.

De Kalb, Johann, Baron. See Kalb, Johann, Baron de.

De la Barra, Francisco Leon, statesman; born in Queretaro, Mexico, June 16, 1863; became a lawyer; member of the Mexican Congress, 1891–96; minister to the South American republics on the Atlantic side, 1902; to the Netherlands and Belgium, 1904; ambassador to the United States, 1908; and provisional president of Mexico on the forced resignation of Porfirio Diaz (*q. v.*), May 26, 1911. He specialized in international law; represented Mexico at the Pan-American Congress, Rio de Janeiro, 1906, and the Peace Conference, The Hague, 1907; and was author of valuable works on arbitration and international law and concerns.

Delafield, Richard, military engineer;

born in New York City, Sept. 1, 1798; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1818, and entered the corps of engineers; was engaged in building the defences of Hampton Roads, the fortifications in the district of the Mississippi, and those within the vicinity of Delaware River and Bay in 1819–38; superintendent of West Point in 1838–45 and in 1856–61; and became chief of engineers in 1864. At the close of the Civil War he was brevetted major-general, U. S. A., "for faithful, meritorious, and distinguished services in the engineer department during the rebellion." He was retired in 1866. He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 5, 1873.

Delagoa Bay, a large bay, the estuary of several rivers, on the southeast coast of Africa, situated between lat. 25° 40′ and 26° 20′ S. It extends 60 miles from north to south, and 20 miles from east to west. It was discovered by the Portuguese in 1498, and for nearly 400 years was in dispute between England and Portugal, the Boers also putting in a claim to it in 1835. It is the only seaport available for the Transvaal, but it is not in that territory. The contention between England and Portugal was referred to President Thiers, and settled by President MacMahon, his successor, in 1875, in favor of Portugal. By an agreement England received the right of pre-emption. It was understood in the early part of the war between the British and the Boers (1899–1900) that Great Britain had either purchased the bay and its immediate surroundings outright or had negotiated an arrangement with Portugal by which the bay could not be used for any purpose hostile to British interest. In 1883 Col. Edward McMurdo, a civil engineer of Kentucky, received from the King of Portugal an extremely liberal concession for the construction of a railroad from Lorenzo Marques to the Transvaal frontier, a distance of 57 miles. This concession also included the grant of large tracts of land along the projected route, the territory upon which much of the town of Lorenzo Marques now stands, an island in Delagoa Bay, and certain commercial privileges along the shore. By the aid of British capital the road was completed in November, 1887, to what the Portuguese engineers certified was the border of the Transvaal. In 1889 the Portuguese government served notice on Colonel McMurdo that the real frontier was 6 miles further inland, and that if the road was not built to that point within four months it would be seized by Portugal. Before McMurdo's side of the controversy could be heard, Portugal confiscated the entire property (June, 1889). The United States, in behalf of the McMurdo interests, united with England to compel Portugal to make proper reparation, and Portugal consented to have the dispute settled by arbitration. The tribunal was organized in Berne, Switzerland, in 1890, but it was not till March 29, 1900, that a conclusion was reached. The total award to the claimants was $3,202,800, with interest from 1889, and by a compromise the heirs of Colonel McMurdo were awarded $500,000 towards the close of 1900.

De Lancey, EDWARD FLOYD, historian; born at Mamaroneck, N. Y., April 3, 1821; graduated at Hobart College in 1843; is a member and officer of many historical organizations, and the author of biographies of James De Lancey, James W. Beekman, William Allen; *Documentary History of New York; Capture of Fort Washington,* and many other historical works. He died in 1905.

De Lancey, ÉTIENNE (STEPHEN); merchant; born in Caen, France, Oct. 24, 1663; fled to Holland on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes; and went thence to England and became a British subject. He landed in New York, June 7, 1686; became a merchant and amassed a large fortune; and was at all times a public-spirited citizen. In 1700 he built the De Lancey house, which subsequently became known as the "Queen's Head" and "Fraunce's Tavern." In the large room, originally Mrs. De Lancey's drawing-room, Washington bade farewell to the officers of the Army of the Revolution. He died in New York City, Nov. 18, 1741.

De Lancey, JAMES, jurist; born in New York City, Nov. 27, 1703; eldest son of Étienne De Lancey; graduated at the University of Cambridge, England, and soon after his return to New York (1729) was made a justice of the Supreme Court of that province, and chief-justice in 1733. For two years, as lieu-

tenant-governor, he was acting governor (1753–55), after the death of Governor Osborn. Judge De Lancey was for many years the most influential man in the politics and legislation of the colony, and was one of the founders of King's College (now Columbia University). He wrote a *Review of the Military Operations from 1753 to 1756*. He died in New York City, July 30, 1760.

De Lancey, JAMES; born in New York City, in 1732; served throughout the French and Indian War; member of the State legislature 1768–75; sailed for England in 1775, where he died in 1800. His large estates in New York were confiscated at the close of the Revolution.

De Lancey, OLIVER, military officer; born in New York City, Sept. 16, 1708; brother of Judge De Lancey; for many years a member of the Assembly and Council, also a colonel of the provincial troops, and when the Revolution broke out he organized and equipped, chiefly at his own expense, a corps of loyalists. In 1777 he was appointed a brigadier-general in the royal service. His military operations were chiefly in the region of New York City. At the evacuation of that city in 1783 he went to England. He died in Beverley, England, Nov. 27, 1785.

De Lancey, OLIVER, military officer; born in New York City in 1752; educated abroad; entered the British army in 1766, and rose to major in 1773; was with the British army in Boston during the siege in 1775–76, and accompanied it to Nova Scotia. He returned with it to Staten Island in June, and commanded the British cavalry when the army invaded Long Island in August, which formed the advance of the right column. To him General Woodhull surrendered under promise of protection, but it was not afforded, and the patriot was murdered. He was active under Sir Henry Clinton throughout the war. In 1781 he succeeded Major André as adjutant-general, and on his return to England undertook the arrangement of the claims of the loyalists for compensation for losses in America. He was also at the head of a commission for settling all army accounts during the war. Because of defalcations in his public accounts, he was removed from office. He was elected to Parliament in 1796; was promoted to lieutenant-general in 1801, and to general in 1812. He died in Edinburgh, Scotland, Sept. 3, 1822.

Delano, COLUMBUS, statesman; born in Shoreham, Vt., June 5, 1809; settled in Mount Vernon, O., in 1817; admitted to the bar in 1831, and became prominent as a criminal lawyer. He was a member of Congress in 1844–64 and 1866–68; was appointed United States commissioner of internal revenue in 1869, and later by reorganizing the bureau increased the receipts in eight months more than 100 per cent.; and was Secretary of the Department of the Interior in 1870–75. He died in Mount Vernon, O., Oct. 23, 1896.

Delaware, named in honor of LORD DE LA WARR (*q. v.*), a State in the South Atlantic Division of the North American Union; one of the original thirteen, and the first to ratify the federal Constitution; bounded on the n. by Pennsylvania, e. by Delaware River and Bay and the Atlantic Ocean, and s. and w. by Maryland; area, 2,370 square miles, of which

STATE SEAL OF DELAWARE.

405 are water surface; extreme breadth, e. to w., 35 miles; extreme length, n. to s., 110 miles; number of counties, 3; capital, Dover; popular name, "The Blue Hen State"; State flower, the peach blossom; State motto, "Liberty and Independence"; ratified the federal Constitution, Dec. 7, 1787; population (1910) 202,322.

General Statistics.—Delaware, the second smallest State in the Union, is noted

for its great historical associations, its production of oysters and fruit, especially peaches and strawberries, and its extensive market-gardening and manufacturing interests. Its agricultural productions, chiefly corn, wheat, hay, potatoes (common and sweet), and yams, have an annual value of about $7,000,000, and its domestic animals, poultry, and bees, about $6,500,000. A large part of its market-gardening interests consists of early vegetables for Northern markets, and Dover, Milford, Middletown, Smyrna, and other cities and towns have large fruit-preserving and canning plants. The manufacturing industries have over 725 factory-system establishments, employing a capital of over $55,000,000 and 21,200 wage-earners, paying over $10,000,000 for salaries and wages, and $26,000,000 for materials, and having a combined output valued at about $75,000,000, the most important being tanned, curried, and finished leather, foundry and machine-shop products, steam-railroad cars, paper and wood pulp, preserving and canning of fruits and vegetables, ship-building, iron and steel, and lumber products. The mineral products are limited chiefly to stone and clay, with a total annual value of about $850,000.

Business interests are promoted by twenty-eight national banks, with capital $2,373,985 and resources $17,876,794, and exchanges at the clearing-house at Wilmington have reached nearly $80,000,000 in a single year. While much of the State's productions is shipped to foreign and domestic ports through Baltimore, Delaware has a direct foreign trade of over $800,000 per annum, the bulk being imports. Religious interests are represented by 468 organizations, having 478 church edifices, 71,251 communicants or members, 49,926 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $3,250,105, the strongest denominations being the Methodist, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, Protestant Episcopal, and Baptist. The Roman Catholic and Protestant Episcopal Churches have each a bishop in Wilmington. St. Patrick's Cathedral (R. C.) in Wilmington, the first cathedral in the State, was dedicated Oct. 29, 1905. The estimated number of children 5–18 years of age exceeds 53,000, of whom about 39,000 are enrolled in public and 5,000 in private schools. The value of public-school property is reported at $1,627,314; total annual revenue, $498,524; total expenditures, $539,957. For higher education there are the Delaware State College, with agricultural and mechanical departments, at Newark, and the State College for colored youth, at Dover. Reform schools include St. Joseph's Industrial School for colored youth (R. C.), at Clayton; State Industrial School for Girls, at Wilmington; and the Ferris Industrial School, at Marshallton.

Government.—Under the constitution adopted June 4, 1897, the executive authority is vested in a governor (annual salary $4,000), lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, treasurer, auditor, attorney-general, and commissioner of insurance—official terms, four years. The legislature consists of a Senate of seventeen members and a House of Representatives of thirty-five members; terms of senators four years, of representatives two years; salary of each, $5 per diem; sessions biennial; limit, sixty days. The chief judicial authority is a supreme court, comprising a chancellor, chief-justice, and four associate justices, a court of errors and appeals, a court of oyer and terminer, and the usual minor courts. A peculiar feature of the State's penal system is the public use of the pillory and whipping-post for prisoners convicted of theft, felonious assault, housebreaking, and mayhem. For many years there has been a strong sentiment within the State against the continuance of this form of punishment, and frequent attempts have been made to abolish the practice. In 1907 the legislature practically discontinued it, excepting in New Castle county. The same legislature established a State Board of Immigration, to encourage the immigration of foreign agriculturists, and enacted laws imposing an annual franchise tax on corporations, authorizing the city of Wilmington to adopt the initiative and referendum, and providing for securing the purity of food and drugs. Kent and Sussex counties voted for prohibition in 1907, and the Supreme Court upheld the legality of the act under which the elections were held, on a suit by the liquor interests, and New Castle county went "wet" in the election

of 1910. The State has an assessed property valuation of nearly $90,000,000. No taxes are levied for general State purposes, the excess of assets over liabilities being more than $1,000,000.

GOVERNORS OF DELAWARE.

UNDER THE SWEDES.

Name.	Date.
Peter Minuit	1638 to 1640
Peter Hollender	1640 " 1642
Johan Printz	1643 " 1652
Johan Pappegoia	1653 " 1654
Johan C. Rising	1654 " 1655

UNDER THE DUTCH.

Peter Stuyvesant	1655 to 1664

ENGLISH COLONIAL.

From 1664 up to 1682, under the government of New York; and from 1683 up to 1773, under the proprietary government of Pennsylvania.

STATE.

Name.	Date.
John McKinley	1776 to 1777
Cæsar Rodney	1778 " 1781
John Dickinson	1782 " 1783
John Cook	1783
Nicholas Van Dyke	1784 to 1786
Thomas Collins	1786 " 1789
Joshua Clayton	1789 " 1796
Gunning Bedford	1796 " 1797
Daniel Rodgers	1797 " 1798
Richard Bassett	1798 " 1801
James Sykes	1801 " 1802
David Hall	1802 " 1805
Nathaniel Mitchell	1805 " 1808
George Truitt	1808 " 1811
Joseph Hazlett	1811 " 1814
Daniel Rodney	1814 " 1817
John Clark	1817 " 1820
Jacob Stout	1820 " 1821
John Collins	1821 " 1822
Caleb Rodney	1822 " 1823
Joseph Hazlett	1823 " 1824
Samuel Paynter	1824 " 1827
Charles Polk	1827 " 1830
David Hazzard	1830 " 1833
Caleb P. Bennett	1833 " 1836
Charles Polk	1836 " 1837
Cornelius P. Comegys	1837 " 1840
William B. Cooper	1840 " 1844
Thomas Stockton	1844 " 1846
Joseph Maul	1846
William Tample	1846
William Thorp	1847 to 1851
William H. Ross	1851 " 1855
Peter F. Causey	1855 " 1859
William Burton	1859 " 1863
William Cannon	1863 " 1867
Grove Saulsbury	1867 " 1871
James Ponder	1871 " 1875
John P. Cochran	1875 " 1879
John W. Hall	1879 " 1883
Charles C. Stockley	1883 " 1887
Benjamin T. Biggs	1887 " 1891
Robert J. Reynolds	1891 " 1895
Joshua H. Marvil	1895
William T. Watson	1895 to 1897
Ebe W. Tunnell	1897 " 1901
John Hunn	1901 " 1905
Preston Lea	1905 " 1909
Simeon S. Pennewell	1909 " ——

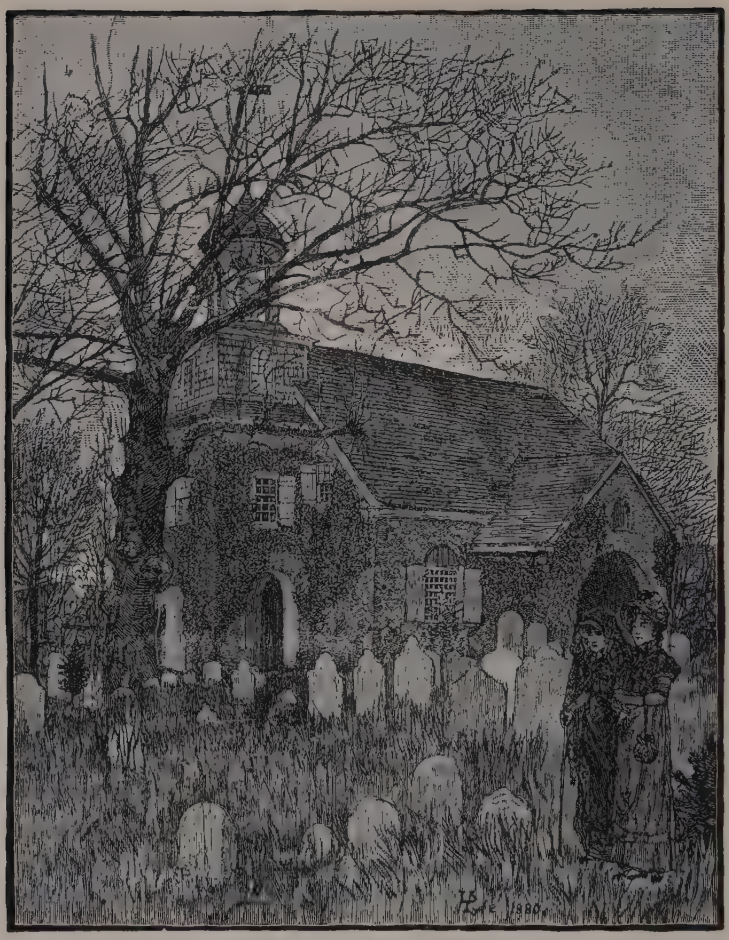
Delaware ranked sixteenth in population among the States and Territories under the census of 1790; seventeenth in 1800; nineteenth in 1810; twenty-second in 1820; twenty-fourth in 1830; twenty-sixth in 1840; thirtieth in 1850; thirty-second in 1860; thirty-fifth in 1870; thirty-eighth in 1880; forty-second in 1890; forty-sixth in 1900, and forty-eighth in 1910.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Date.
Richard Bassett	1st and 2d	1789 to 1793
George Read	1st " 2d	1789 " 1793
Henry Latimer	3d " 6th	1793 " 1801
John Vining	3d " 5th	1793 " 1798
Joshua Clayton	5th	1798
William Hill Wells	5th to 8th	1799 to 1805
Samuel White	7th " 11th	1801 " 1809
James A. Bayard	8th " 12th	1805 " 1813
Outerbridge Horsey	11th " 16th	1810 " 1821
William Hill Wells	13th " 14th	1813 " 1817
Nicholas Van Dyke	15th " 19th	1817 " 1827
Cæsar A. Rodney	17th	1821 " 1823
Thomas Clayton	18th to 19th	1824 " 1827
Daniel Rodney	19th	1826
Henry M. Ridgely	19th to 20th	1827 to 1829
Louis McLane	20th " 21st	1827 " 1829
John M. Clayton	21st " 23d	1829 " 1835
Arnold Naudain	21st " 23d	1830 " 1836
Richard H. Bayard	24th " 28th	1836 " 1845
Thomas Clayton	24th " 29th	1837 " 1847
John M. Clayton	29th " 30th	1845 " 1849
John Wales	30th " 31st	1849 " 1851
Presley Spruance	30th " 32d	1847 " 1853
James A. Bayard	32d " 38th	1851 " 1864
John M. Clayton	33d " 34th	1853 " 1856
Joseph P. Comegys	34th	1856
Martin Bates	35th	1858
Williard Saulsbury	36th to 41st	1859 to 1871
George Read Riddle	38th " 40th	1864 " 1867
James A. Bayard	40th	1867 " 1869
Thomas F. Bayard	41st to 48th	1869 " 1885
Eli Saulsbury	42d " 50th	1871 " 1889
George Gray	49th " 56th	1885 " 1899
Anthony Higgins	51st " 54th	1889 " 1895
Richard R. Kenney	54th " 56th	1897 " 1901
	[57th vacant.]	
Lewis H. Ball	58th	1903 " 1905
James F. Allee	58th to 59th	1903 " 1907
Henry A. Dupont	59th " ——	1907 " ——
Henry A. Richardson	60th " ——	1907 " ——

In the apportionment of representation in Congress, Delaware was given one member under the federal Constitution, and under each census, excepting that of 1810, when she was given two.

History: Early Period.—Lord De la Warr entered the bay now bearing his name in 1610, when he was governor of Virginia. It had been discovered by Hudson in 1609. In 1629 Samuel Godyn, a director of the Dutch West India Company, bought of the Indians a tract of



OLD SWEDISH CHURCH, WILMINGTON, DELAWARE.

land near the mouth of the Delaware; and the next year De Vries, with twenty colonists from Holland, settled near the site of Lewes. The colony was destroyed by the natives three years afterwards, and the Indians had sole possession of that district until 1638, when a colony of Swedes and Finns landed on Cape Henlopen, and purchased the lands along the bay and river as far north as the falls at Trenton (see NEW SWEDEN). They built Fort Christiana near the site of Wilmington. Their settlements were mostly planted within the present limits of Pennsylvania. The Swedes were conquered by the Dutch of New Netherland in 1655, and from that time until 1664, when New Netherland was conquered by the English, the territory was claimed by the Dutch and controlled by them. Then Lord Baltimore, proprietor of Maryland, claimed all the territory on the west side of Delaware Bay, and even to lat. 40°; and settlers from Maryland attempted to drive away the settlers from the present State of Delaware. When William Penn obtained a grant of Pennsylvania, he was very desirous of owning the land on Delaware Bay to the sea, and procured from the Duke of York a release of all his title

and claim to New Castle and 12 miles around it, and to the land between that tract and the sea; and in the presence of all the settlers he produced his deeds (October, 1682), and formally accepted the surrender of the territory. Lord Baltimore pressed his claim, but in 1685 the Lords of Trade and Plantations made a decision in Penn's favor. A compromise afterwards adjusted all conflicting claims. The tracts which now constitute the State of Delaware, Penn called "The Territories," or "Three Lower Counties on the Delaware." They were governed as a part of Pennsylvania for about twenty years afterwards, and each county had six delegates in the legislature. Then Penn allowed them a separate legislature; but the colony was under the governor of Pennsylvania until 1776, when the inhabitants declared it an independent State. A constitution was adopted by a convention of the people of the three counties—New Castle, Kent, and Sussex—Sept. 20, 1776. A State government was organized, and John McKinley was elected its first governor. In 1792 a second constitution was framed and adopted, and that, amended in 1831, was the fundamental law till the adoption of the third, in 1897.

War Periods.—Delaware bore an efficient part in the French, Revolutionary, and Civil wars. When Howe entered Philadelphia (September, 1777) the Americans still held control of the Delaware River below that city. On Mud Island, near the confluence of the Schuylkill and Delaware, was built Fort Mifflin. On the New Jersey shore opposite, at Red Bank, was Fort Mercer, a strong redoubt, well furnished with heavy artillery. At Billingsport, on the same shore, 3 miles lower down, were extensive but unfinished works designed to guard some obstructions in the river there. Other formidable obstructions were placed in the river below forts Mifflin and Mercer, in the form of *chevaux-de-frise*—sunken crates of stones, with heavy spears of iron-pointed timber to receive and pierce the bows of vessels. Besides these, there were floating batteries. See MERCER, FORT; MIFFLIN, FORT. Although Delaware was a slave State, it refused to secede at the outbreak of the Civil War; and, though it assumed a sort of neutrality, it furnished several regiments of volunteers for the Union army and many volunteers for the South.

Boundary Settlement.—A long-standing controversy between Delaware and Pennsylvania, involving the possession of a triangular piece of territory about one mile square in area, along the crescent-shaped boundary-line, was settled through the aid of a joint boundary commission, whose findings were approved April 11, 1893. The old boundary stones gave the territory to Pennsylvania, but Delaware exercised jurisdiction over it. An attempt to rectify the line was made by the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey; but when a number of residents of Delaware found that they would be geographically in Pennsylvania, an opposition was developed which led to the appointment of a joint boundary commission. Owing to the inaccuracy of the original survey of 1701, no single curve could be made to pass through all the points agreed upon, but a compound curve of two acres of nearly equal length was found to conform very closely to the line of 1703, and to follow the lines of existing holdings and jurisdictions in the two States as near as was believed to be practicable. On the approval of this finding, the new line was marked with permanent monuments.

Noted Senatorial Contest.—A remarkable series of political campaigns was opened in 1889, when John Edward Addicks, who had become a power in the Republican politics of the State, announced his candidacy for the seat in the United States Senate about to be vacated by Eli Saulsbury. The election, however, resulted in the choice of Anthony Higgins, the Addicks candidacy producing a division in the party. In 1901–03 he was again a candidate. In the former year he again failed of election, and in the latter his supporters, who had united to prevent the election of anyone else since the announcement of his candidacy, agreed to a factional compromise, on which Mr. Addicks withdrew from the contest. The long deadlock in the legislature was thus broken, and in the ensuing election Senators Louis H. Ball and James F. Allbee were chosen for the two vacant seats in the United States Senate, each for an unexpired term.

Delaware, or Delawarr, THOMAS WEST, 3D LORD; May 23, 1609, a new charter was granted to the London company, constituting it a corporation entirely independent of the North Virginia or Plymouth Company. It increased the company's bounds to a tract fronting on the Atlantic Ocean, "from the point of land called Cape or Point Comfort northward two hundred miles, and from the point of Cape Comfort southward two hundred miles," and extending "up into the land, throughout from sea to sea, west and northwest," a clause which subsequently caused much dispute; appointed governor of Virginia in 1609. He built two forts at the mouth of the James River, which he named Henry and Charles, in honor of the King's sons. In 1611 he sailed for the West Indies, but was driven back by a storm and landed at the mouth of the Delaware River, whence he sailed for England. In 1618 he embarked for Virginia and died on the voyage. See ARGALL, SIR SAMUEL; DELAWARE, STATE OF.

Delaware Indians, an important family of the Algonquin nation, also called Lenni-Lenapes, or "men." When the Europeans found them, they were dwelling in detached bands, under separate sachems on the Delaware River. The Dutch traded with them as early as 1613, and held friendly relations with them; but in 1632 the Dutch settlement of Swaendael was destroyed by them. The Swedes found them peaceful when they settled on the Delaware. This family claim to have come from the west with the Minquas, to whom they became vassals. They also claimed to be the source of all the Algonquians, and were styled "grandfathers." The Delawares comprised three powerful families (Turtle, Turkey, and Wolf), and were known as Minseys, or Munsees, and Delawares proper. The former occupied the northern part of New Jersey and a portion of Pennsylvania, and the latter inhabited lower New Jersey, the banks of the Delaware below Trenton, and the whole valley of the Schuylkill. After the conquest of New Netherland, the English kept up trade with the Delawares, and William Penn and his followers bought large tracts of land from them. They were parties on the Indian side to the famous treaty with Penn. At that time the Indians within the limits of his domain were estimated at 6,000 in number. The FIVE

WILLIAM PENN PURCHASING LAND FROM THE DELAWARE INDIANS.

NATIONS (*q. v.*) conquered the Delawares, and called them "women" in contempt; and when, at the middle of the eighteenth century, the latter, dissatisfied with the interpretation of a treaty, refused to leave their land, the Five Nations haughtily ordered them to go.

Commingling with warlike tribes, the Delawares became warlike themselves, and developed great energy on the war-path. They fought the Cherokees, and in 1773 some of them went over the mountains and settled in Ohio. As early as 1741 the Moravians had begun missionary work among them on the Lehigh, near Bethlehem and Nazareth, and a little church was soon filled with Indian converts. At the beginning of the French and Indian War the Delawares were opposed to the English, excepting a portion who were led by the Moravians; but in treaties held at Easton, Pa., at different times, from 1756 until 1761, they made peace with the English, and redeemed themselves from their vassalage to the SIX NATIONS (*q. v.*). They settled on the Susquehanna, the Christian Indians apart. Then another emigration over the mountains occurred and they planted a settlement at Muskingum, O. These joined Pontiac and besieged Fort Pitt and other frontier posts, but were defeated in August, 1763, by Colonel Bouquet, and their great chief, Teedyuscung, was killed. Their towns were ravaged, and the Moravian converts, who were innocent, fled for refuge to Philadelphia. These returned to the Susquehanna in 1764, and the Ohio portion made peace at Muskingum the same year, and at Fort Pitt in 1765. The remainder in Pennsylvania emigrated to Ohio, and in 1786 not a Delaware was left east of the Alleghany Mountains. Moravian missionaries went with their flocks and the Christian Indians increased. The pagans kept upon the war-path until they were severely smitten in a drawn battle at Point Pleasant in 1774.

The Delawares joined the English when the Revolutionary War broke out, but made peace with the Americans in 1778, when a massacre of ninety of the Christian Indians in Ohio by the Americans aroused the fury of the tribe. Being almost powerless, they fled to the Huron River and Canada. Under the provisions of a treaty in 1787 a small band of Delawares returned to the Muskingum, the remainder being hostile. These fought Wayne in 1795, but refused to join Tecumseh in the War of 1812, and in 1818 they settled on the White River, in Illinois. They finally settled in Kansas. In 1904 they numbered about 1,900, nearly one-half in the present Oklahoma, the others in Kansas, Wisconsin, and Ontario, Canada. In the Civil War the Delawares furnished 170 soldiers for the National army.

Delaware River, WASHINGTON'S PASSAGE OF THE. At the close of November, 1776, the British occupied New Jersey, and only the Delaware River shut off Cornwallis from Philadelphia. On Dec. 2, Washington, with a considerable force, crossed the river, securing every boat, so that the British were unable to follow him. Determined to surprise the Hessians, under Colonel Rahl, at Trenton, Washington recrossed the river a few miles above Trenton on Dec. 25, with 2,400 men and twenty pieces of artillery. Owing to the darkness and the floating ice it was 4 A.M. on the 26th before the entire force had crossed. General Knox, the constant companion of Washington throughout the war, had crossed the river before it became choked with ice, and during the night that Washington and his party recrossed it Knox stood on the opposite shore and indicated where a landing could be safely made. See TRENTON, BATTLE OF.

Delegate. The title was given to members of the first Continental Congress in America, 1774. Representatives to Congress from the United States Territories and the Philippines are designated by this term. They have the right of discussion, but no vote.

Delfthaven, the port of Holland from which the Pilgrim Fathers sailed in the *Speedwell,* July 22, 1620, for Southampton. They embarked on the *Mayflower* at Plymouth.

Delmar, ALEXANDER, political economist; born in New York, Aug. 9, 1836; edited *Daily American Times; Hunt's Merchants' Magazine; Financial Chronicle,* etc., and published *Gold Money and Paper Money; Treatise on Taxation; the National Banking System; History of Monetary Systems; Essay on Corpora-*

tions; History of Money in America; Politics of Money, etc.

De Lome, ENRIQUE DUPUY, Spanish minister to the United States. In February, 1898, he wrote a letter to Señor Canalejas which contained insulting and disparaging phrases regarding the President of the United States. De Lome at first denied the genuineness of the letter, but it was proved beyond a doubt that he was the author, and he telegraphed his resignation to Madrid, Feb. 9. He died in Paris, July 1, 1904.

De Long, GEORGE WASHINGTON, explorer; born in New York City, Aug. 22, 1844; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1865, and promoted ensign in 1866; master in 1868; lieutenant in 1869; and lieutenant-commander, Nov. 1, 1879. He was with Capt. Daniel L. Braine on the *Juniata*, when he was ordered, in 1873, to search for the missing Arctic steamer *Polaris* and her crew. On July 8, 1879, he was given command of the *Jeannette*, which had been fitted out by JAMES GORDON BENNETT, JR. (*q. v.*). The vessel was caught in the pack-ice Sept. 5, 1879, off Herald Island, and, after drifting 600 miles to the northwest, was crushed by the ice June 13, 1881, 150 miles from the New Siberian Islands and more than 300 miles from the nearest point of the mainland of Asia. With his party he started southward, and on July 28, 1881, arrived at Bennett Island, and on Aug. 20 at Thaddeus Island, from which place they travelled in boats. De Long, with fourteen others out of his crew of thirty-three, reached the main mouth of the Lena River, Sept. 17, having travelled about 2,800 miles. He proceeded as fast as he could until Oct. 9, when it became impossible to travel farther, owing to the debility of the men. The party had separated into three branches, one commanded by De Long, the second by Lieutenant Chipp, and the third by Chief Engineer GEORGE W. MELVILLE (*q. v.*). All of De Long's party excepting two perished; Chipp's boat was lost in a gale, with eight men, but Melville, with nine others, succeeded in reaching a small village on the Lena. The two survivors of the De Long party, who had been sent by that officer in search of relief, met the Melville party on Oct. 29. On hearing their report, Melville with his party started immediately on a search for De Long and his companions, and on March 23, 1882, found their remains, together with the records of the expedition and De Long's diary written up to Oct. 30 previous. The United States Government had the remains of De Long and his companions brought home, and they were interred with appropriate honors on Feb. 22, 1884. See *The Voyage of the Jeannette*, by Mrs. De Long; and *In the Lena Delta*, by George W. Melville.

Deming, WILLIAM, gun-founder; born in 1736; during the Revolution constructed the first wrought-iron cannon ever made in America, one of which was captured by the British at the battle of Brandywine, and is kept as a curiosity at the Tower of London. He died in Mifflin, Pa., Dec. 19, 1830.

Democracy in New Netherland. Gov. WILLIAM KIEFT (*q. v.*) had resolved to chasten the Raritan Indians for a grave offence. He called upon the people to shoulder their muskets for a fight. They knew his avarice and greed, and withal his cowardice, and boldly charged these things upon him. "It is all well for you," they said, "who have not slept out of the fort a single night since you came, to endanger our lives and our homes in undefended places," and they refused to obey. This attitude of the people transformed the governor. He invited (Aug. 23, 1641) the heads of families of New Amsterdam to meet him in consultation on public affairs. They assembled at the fort, and promptly chose twelve citizens to represent them. So appeared th first popular assembly, and so was chosen the first representative congress in New Netherland. It was a spontaneous outgrowth of the innate spirit of democracy that animated the people. The twelve were the vigorous seeds of that representative democracy which bore fruit in all the colonies more than a century later. Again, when the colony was threatened with destruction by the Indians, Kieft summoned the people into council (September, 1643), who chose eight men as the popular representatives to act with the governor in public affairs. Again when Gov. PETER STUYVESANT (*q. v.*) found the finances of the colony of New Netherland in such a

wretched condition that taxation was necessary, he dared not tax the people without their consent, for fear of offending the States-General, so he called a convention of citizens, and directed them to choose eighteen of their best men, of whom he might select nine as representatives of the tax-payers, and who should form a co-ordinate branch of the local government. He tried to hedge them around with restrictions, but the nine proved to be more potent in promoting popular liberty than had Kieft's twelve. They nourished the prolific seed of democracy, which burst into vigorous life in the time of JACOB LEISLER (*q. v.*). Stuyvesant tried to stifle its growth. The more it was opposed, the more vigorous it grew.

Late in the autumn of 1653 a convention of nineteen delegates, who represented eight villages or communities, assembled at the town-hall in New Amsterdam, ostensibly to take measures to secure themselves from the depredations of the barbarians around them and sea-rovers. The governor tried in vain to control their action; they paid very little attention to his wishes or his commands. He stormed and threatened, but prudently yielded to the demands of the people that he should issue a call for another convention, and give legal sanction for the election of delegates thereto. These met in New Amsterdam on Dec. 10, 1653. Of the eight districts represented, four were Dutch and four English. Of the nineteen delegates, ten were of Dutch and nine were of English nativity. This was the first really representative assembly in the great State of New York chosen by the people. The names of the delegates were as follows: From New Amsterdam, Van Hattem, Kregier, and Van de Grist; from Breucklen (Brooklyn), Lubbertsen, Van der Beeck, and Beeckman; from Flushing, Hicks and Flake; from Newtown, Coe and Hazard; from Heemstede (Hempstead), Washburn and Somers; from Amersfoort (Flatlands), Wolfertsen, Strycker, and Swartwout; from Midwont (Flatbush), Elbertsen and Spicer; and from Gravesend, Baxter and Hubbard. Baxter was at that time the English secretary of the colony, and he led the English delegates. The object of this convention was to form and adopt a remonstrance against the tyrannous rule of the governor. It was drawn by Baxter, signed by all the delegates present, and sent to the governor, with a demand that he should give a "categorical answer." In it the grievances of the people were stated under six heads. Stuyvesant met this severe document with his usual pluck. He denied the right of some of the delegates to seats in the convention. He denounced the whole thing as the wicked work of Englishmen, and doubted whether George Baxter knew what he was about. He wanted to know whether there was no one among the Dutch in New Netherland "sagacious and expert enough to draw up a remonstrance to the Director-General and his council," and severely reprimanded the new city government of New Amsterdam (New York) for "seizing this dangerous opportunity for conspiring with the English [with whom Holland was then at war], who were ever hatching mischief, but never performing their promises, and who might to-morrow ally themselves with the North"—meaning Sweden and Denmark. The convention was not to be intimidated by bluster. They informed Stuyvesant, by the mouth of Beeckman, that unless he answered their complaints, they would appeal to the States-General. At this the governor took fire, and, seizing his cane, ordered Beeckman to leave his presence. The plucky ambassador coolly folded his arms, and silently defied the magistrate. When Stuyvesant's anger had abated, he asked Beeckman's pardon for his rudeness. He was not so complaisant with the convention. He ordered them to disperse on pain of his "high displeasure." The convention executed their threat by sending an advocate to Holland to lay their grievances before the States-General.

It has been observed how the first germ of democracy or republicanism appeared in New Amsterdam, and was checked in its visible growth by the heel of power. It grew, nevertheless. It was stimulated by the kind acts of Gov. THOMAS DONGAN (*q. v.*); and when the English revolution of 1688 had developed the strength of the people's will, and their just aspirations were formulated in the Bill of

Rights, it sprang up into a vigorous fruit-bearing plant. Its power was manifested in the choice and administration of Leisler as ruler until a royal governor was appointed, and his death caused the line of separation between democracy and aristocracy—republicanism and monarchy—"Leislerians" and "Anti-Leislerians"—to be distinctly drawn. During the exciting period of Leisler's rule, the aristocratic or royalist party were led by NICHOLAS BAYARD (*q. v.*), a wealthy and influential citizen, who was warmly seconded by ROBERT LIVINGSTON (*q. v.*). These two men were chiefly instrumental in bringing Leisler to the scaffold and treating his family and friends in a shameful manner. This conduct was continued until the Earl of Bellomont succeeded Fletcher as governor, when the "Anti-Leislerians" were reduced to a minority, and kept quiet for a while. After the death of Bellomont (March 5, 1701), John Nanfan, his lieutenant, ruled for a while. Nanfan favored the democratic party. As soon as it was known that LORD CORNBURY (*q. v.*), a thorough aristocrat and royalist, had been appointed governor, Bayard and his party heaped abuse not only upon the dead Bellomont, but upon Nanfan. The latter saw that Bayard was on the verge of a pit which he had digged himself, and he pushed him into it. Bayard had procured an act, in 1691, aimed at Leisler and his supporters, providing that any person who should in any manner endeavor to disturb the government of the colony should be deemed "rebels and traitors unto their majesties," and should incur the pains and penalties of the laws of England for such offence. Bayard was arrested on a charge of treason, tried, convicted, and received the horrid sentence then imposed by the English law upon traitors—to be hanged, quartered, etc. Bayard applied for a reprieve until his Majesty's pleasure should be known. It was granted, and in the mean time Cornbury arrived, when all was reversed. Bayard was released and reinstated. The democrats were placed under the lash of the aristocrats, which Bayard and Livingston used without mercy by the hand of the wretched ruler to whom they offered libations of flattery. The chief-justice who tried Bayard, and the advocate who opposed him, were compelled to fly to England. From that time onward there was a continuous conflict by the democracy of New York with the aristocracy as represented by the royal governors and their official parasites. It fought bravely, and won many victories, the greatest of which was in a fierce battle for the freedom of the press, in the case of JOHN PETER ZENGER (*q. v.*).

DEMOCRACY

Democracy in the United States, CHARACTER OF.*—Woodrow Wilson, former president of Princeton University, governor of New Jersey in 1911–13, and later the twenty-eighth President of the United States, wrote as follows:

Everything apprises us of the fact that we are not the same nation now that we were when the government was formed. In looking back to that time, the impression is inevitable that we started with sundry wrong ideas about ourselves. We deemed ourselves rank democrats, whereas we were in fact only progressive Englishmen. Turn the leaves of that sage manual of constitutional interpretation and advocacy, the *Federalist*, and note the perverse tendency of its writers to refer to Greece and Rome for precedents—that Greece and Rome which haunted all our earlier and even some of our more mature years. Recall, too, that familiar story of Daniel Webster which tells of his coming home exhausted from an interview with the first President-elect Harrison, whose Secretary of State he was to be, and explaining that he had been obliged in the course of the conference, which concerned the inaugural address about to be delivered, to kill nine Roman consuls whom it had been the intention of the good conqueror of Tippecanoe publicly to take into office with him. The truth is that we long imagined ourselves related in some unexplained way to all ancient republicans.

* By courtesy of Messrs. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Strangely enough, too, we at the same time accepted the quite incompatible theory that we were related also to the French philosophical radicals. We claimed kinship with democrats everywhere—with all democrats. We can now scarcely realize the atmosphere of such thoughts. We are no longer wont to refer to the ancients or to the French for sanction of what we do. We have had abundant experience of our own by which to reckon.

"Hardly any fact in history," says Mr. Bagehot, writing about the middle of the century, "is so incredible as that forty and a few years ago England was ruled by Mr. Perceval. It seems almost the same as being ruled by the *Record* newspaper." (Mr. Bagehot would now probably say the *Standard* newspaper.) "He had the same poorness of thought, the same petty conservatism, the same dark and narrow superstition." "The mere fact of such a premier being endured shows how deeply the whole national spirit and interest was absorbed in the contest with Napoleon, how little we understood the sort of man who should regulate its conduct—'in the crisis of Europe,' as Sydney Smith said, 'he safely brought the curates' salaries improvement bill to a hearing'; and it still more shows the horror of all innovation which the recent events of French history had impressed on our wealthy and comfortable classes. They were afraid of catching revolution, as old women of catching cold. Sir Archibald Alison to this day holds that revolution is an infectious disease, beginning no one knows how, and going on no one knows where. There is but one rule of escape, explains the great historian: 'Stay still; don't move; do what you have been accustomed to do; and consult your grandmother on everything.'"

Almost equally incredible to us is the ardor of revolution that filled the world in those first days of our national life—the fact that one of the rulers of the world's mind in that generation was Rousseau, the apostle of all that is fanciful, unreal, and misleading in politics. To be ruled by him was like taking an account of life from Mr. Rider Haggard. And yet there is still much sympathy in this timid world for the dull people who felt safe in the hands of Mr. Perceval, and, happily, much sympathy also, though little justification, for such as caught a generous elevation of spirit from the speculative enthusiasm of Rousseau.

For us who stand in the dusty matter-of-fact world of to-day, there is a touch of pathos in recollections of the ardor for democratic liberty that filled the air of Europe and America a century ago with such quickening influences. We may sometimes catch ourselves regretting that the inoculations of experience have closed our systems against the infections of hopeful revolution.

"Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive,
But to be young was very heaven! O time
In which the meagre, stale, forbidding ways
Of custom, law, and statute took at once
The attraction of a country in romance!
When Reason seemed the most to assert her rights,
When most intent on making of herself
A prime Enchantress, to assist the work
Which then was going forward in her name!
Not favored spots alone, but the whole earth,
The beauty wore of promise, that which sets
(As at some moment might not be unfelt
Among the bowers of paradise itself)
The budding rose above the rose full blown."

Such was the inspiration which not Wordsworth alone, but Coleridge also, and many another generous spirit whom we love, caught in that day of hope.

It is common to say, in explanation of our regret that the dawn and youth of democracy's day are past, that our principles are cooler now and more circumspect, with the coolness and circumspection of advanced years. It seems to some that our enthusiasms have become tamer and more decorous because our sinews have hardened; that as experience has grown idealism has declined. But to speak thus is to speak with the old self-deception as to the character of our politics. If we are suffering disappointment, it is the disappointment of an awakening: we were dreaming. For we never had any business hearkening to Rousseau or consorting with Europe in revolutionary sentiment. The government which we founded one hundred years ago was no type of an experiment in advanced democracy, as we allowed Europe

and even ourselves to suppose; it was simply an adaptation of English constitutional government. If we suffered Europe to study our institutions as instances in point touching experimentation in politics, she was the more deceived. If we began the first century of our national existence under a similar impression ourselves, there is the greater reason why we should start out upon a new century of national life with more accurate conceptions.

To this end it is important that the following, among other things, should be kept prominently in mind:

1. That there are certain influences astir in this country which make for democracy the world over, and that these influences owe their origin in part to the radical thought of the last century; but that it was not such forces that made us democratic, nor are we responsible for them.

2. That, so far from owing our governments to these general influences, we began, not by carrying out any theory, but by simply carrying out a history—inventing nothing, only establishing a specialized species of English government; that we founded, not democracy, but constitutional government in America.

3. That the government which we thus set up in a perfectly normal manner has nevertheless changed greatly under our hands, by reason both of growth and of the operation of the general democratic forces—the European, or rather world-wide, democratic forces of which I have spoken.

4. That two things, the great size to which our governmental organism has attained, and, still more, this recent exposure of its character and purposes to the common democratic forces of the age of steam and electricity, have created new problems of organization, which it behooves us to meet in the old spirit, but with new measures.

I

First, then, for the forces which are bringing in democratic temper and method the world over. It is matter of familiar knowledge what these forces are, but it will be profitable to our thought to pass them once more in review. They are freedom of thought and the diffusion of enlightenment among the people. Steam and electricity have co-operated with systematic popular education to accomplish this diffusion. The progress of popular education and the progress of democracy have been inseparable. The publication of their great encyclopædia by Diderot and his associates in France in the last century, was the sure sign of the change that was setting in. Learning was turning its face away from the studious few towards the curious many. The intellectual movement of the modern time was emerging from the narrow courses of scholastic thought, and beginning to spread itself abroad over the extended, if shallow, levels of the common mind. The serious forces of democracy will be found, upon analysis, to reside, not in the disturbing doctrines of eloquent revolutionary writers, not in the turbulent discontent of the pauperized and oppressed, so much as in the educational forces of the last 150 years, which have elevated the masses in many countries to a plane of understanding and of orderly, intelligent purpose more nearly on a level with the average man of the classes that have hitherto been permitted to govern. The movements towards democracy which have mastered all the other political tendencies of our day are not older than the middle of the last century; and that is just the age of the now ascendant movement towards systematic popular education.

Yet organized popular education is only one of the quickening influences that have been producing the general enlightenment which is everywhere becoming the promise of general liberty. Rather, it is only part of a great whole, vastly larger than itself. Schools are but separated seed-beds, in which the staple thoughts of the steady and stay-at-home people are prepared and nursed. Not much of the world, moreover, goes to school in the school-house. But through the mighty influences of commerce and the press the world itself has become a school. The air is alive with the multitudinous voices of information. Steady trade-winds of intercommunication have sprung up which carry the seeds of education and enlightenment, wheresoever planted, to every quarter of the globe. No scrap of new

thought can escape being borne away from its place of birth by these all-absorbing currents. No idea can be kept exclusively at home, but is taken up by the trader, the reporter, the traveller, the missionary, the explorer, and is given to all the world in the newspapers, the novel, the memoir, the poem, the treatise, till every community may know, not only itself, but all the world as well, for the small price of learning to read and keeping its ears open. All the world, so far as its news and its most insistent thoughts are concerned, is fast being made every man's neighbor.

Carlyle unquestionably touched one of the obvious truths concerning modern democracy when he declared it to be the result of printing. In the newspaper press a whole population is made critic of all human affairs; democracy is "virtually extant," and "democracy virtually extant will insist on becoming palpably extant." Looked at in the large, the newspaper press is a type of democracy, bringing all men without distinction under comment made by any man without distinction; every topic is reduced to a common standard of news; everything is noted and argued about by everybody. Nothing could give surer promise of popular power than the activity and alertness of thought which are made through such agencies to accompany the training of the public schools. The activity may often be misdirected or unwholesome, may sometimes be only feverish and mischievous, a grievous product of narrow information and hasty conclusion; but it is none the less a stirring and potent activity. It at least marks the initial stages of effective thought. It makes men conscious of the existence and interest of affairs lying outside the dull round of their own daily lives. It gives them nations, instead of neighborhoods, to look upon and think about. They catch glimpses of the international connections of their trades, of the universal application of law, of the endless variety of life, of diversities of race, of a world teeming with men like themselves, and yet full of strange customs, puzzled by dim omens, stained by crime, ringing with voices familiar and unfamiliar.

And all this a man can nowadays get without stirring from home, by merely spelling out the print that covers every piece of paper about him. If men are thrown, for any reason, into the swift and easy currents of travel, they find themselves brought daily face to face with persons native of every clime, with practices suggestive of whole histories, with a thousand things which challenge curiosity, inevitably provoking inquiries such as enlarge knowledge of life and shake the mind imperatively loose from old preconceptions.

These are the forces which have established the drift towards democracy. When all sources of information are accessible to all men alike, when the world's thought and the world's news are scattered broadcast where the poorest may find them, the non-democratic forms of government must find life a desperate venture. Exclusive privilege needs privacy, but cannot have it. Kingship of the elder patterns needs sanctity, but can find it nowhere obtainable in a world of news items and satisfied curiosity. The many will no longer receive submissively the thought of a ruling few, but insist upon having opinions of their own. The reaches of public opinion have been infinitely extended; the number of voices that must be heeded in legislation and in executive policy has been infinitely multiplied. Modern influences have inclined every man to clear his throat for a word in the world's debates. They have popularized everything they have touched.

In the newspapers, it is true, there is very little concert between the writers; little but piecemeal opinion is created by their comment and argument; there is no common voice amid their counsellings. But the aggregate voice thunders with tremendous volume; and that aggregate voice is "public opinion." Popular education and cheap printing and travel vastly thicken the ranks of thinkers everywhere that their influence is felt, and by rousing the multitude to take knowledge of the affairs of government prepare the time when the multitude will, so far as possible, take charge of the affairs of government—the time when, to repeat Carlyle's phrase, democracy will become palpably extant.

But, mighty as such forces are, demo-

cratic as they are, no one can fail to perceive that they are inadequate to produce of themselves such a government as ours. There is little in them of constructive efficacy. They could not of themselves build any government at all. They are critical, analytical, questioning, quizzing forces; not architectural, not powers that devise and build. The influences of popular education, of the press, of travel, of commerce, of the innumerable agencies which nowadays send knowledge and thought in quick pulsations through every part and member of society, do not necessarily mould men for effective endeavor. They may only confuse and paralyze the mind with their myriad stinging lashes of excitement. They may only strengthen the impression that "the world's a stage," and that no one need do more than sit and look on through his ready glass, the newspaper. They overwhelm one with impressions, but do they give stalwartness to his manhood? Do they make his hand any steadier on the plough, or his purpose any clearer with reference to the duties of the moment? They stream light about him, it may be, but do they clear his vision? Is he better able to see because they give him countless things to look at? Is he better able to judge because they fill him with a delusive sense of knowing everything? Activity of mind is not necessarily strength of mind. It may manifest itself in mere dumb show; it may run into jigs as well as into strenuous work at noble tasks. A man's farm does not yield its fruits the more abundantly in their season because he reads the world's news in the papers. A merchant's shipments do not multiply because he studies history. Banking is none the less hazardous to the banker's capital and taxing to his powers because the best writing of the best essayists is to be bought cheap.

II

Very different were the forces behind us. Nothing establishes the republican state save trained capacity for self-government, practical aptitude for public affairs, habitual soberness and temperateness of united action. When we look back to the moderate sagacity and steadfast, self-contained habit in self-government of the men to whom we owe the establishment of our institutions in the United States, we are at once made aware that there is no communion between their democracy and the radical thought and restless spirit called by that name in Europe. There is almost nothing in common between popular outbreaks such as took place in France at her great Revolution and the establishment of a government like our own. Our memories of the year 1789 are as far as possible removed from the memories which Europe retains of that pregnant year. We manifested 100 years ago what Europe lost, namely, self-command, self-possession. Democracy in Europe, outside of closeted Switzerland, has acted always in rebellion, as a destructive force: it can scarcely be said to have had, even yet, any period of organic development. It has built such temporary governments as it has had opportunity to erect on the old foundations and out of the discredited materials of centralized rule, elevating the people's representatives for a season to the throne, but securing almost as little as ever of that every-day local self-government which lies so near to the heart of liberty. Democracy in America, on the other hand, and in the English colonies has had, almost from the first, a truly organic growth. There was nothing revolutionary in its movements; it had not to overthrow other polities; it had only to organize itself. It had not to create, but only to expand, self-government. It did not need to spread propaganda: it needed nothing but to methodize its ways of living.

In brief, we were doing nothing essentially new a century ago. Our strength and our facility alike inhered in our traditions; those traditions made our character and shaped our institutions. Liberty is not something that can be created by a document; neither is it something which, when created, can be laid away in a document, a completed work. It is an organic principle—a principle of life, renewing and being renewed. Democratic institutions are never done; they are like living tissue, always a-making. It is a strenuous thing, this of living the life of a free people; and our success in it depends upon training, not upon clever invention.

Our democracy, plainly, was not a body of doctrine; it was a stage of development. Our democratic state was not a piece of developed theory, but a piece of developed habit. It was not created by mere aspirations or by new faith; it was built up by slow custom. Its process was experience, its basis old wont, its meaning national organic oneness and effective life. It came, like manhood, as the fruit of youth. An immature people could not have had it, and the maturity to which it was vouchsafed was the maturity of freedom and self-control. Such government as ours is a form of conduct, and its only stable foundation is character. A particular form of government may no more be adopted than a particular type of character may be adopted: both institutions and character must be developed by conscious effort and through transmitted aptitudes.

Governments such as ours are founded upon discussion, and government by discussion comes as late in political as scientific thought in intellectual development. It is a habit of state life created by long-established circumstance, and is possible for a nation only in the adult age of its political life. The people who successfully maintain such a government must have gone through a period of political training which shall have prepared them by gradual steps of acquired privilege for assuming the entire control of their affairs. Long and slowly widening experience in local self-direction must have prepared them for national self-direction. They must have acquired adult self-reliance, self-knowledge, and self-control, adult soberness and deliberateness of judgment, adult sagacity in self-government, adult vigilance of thought and quickness of insight. When practised, not by small communities, but by wide nations, democracy, far from being a crude form of government, is possible only among peoples of the highest and steadiest political habit. It is the heritage of races purged alike of hasty barbaric passions and of patient servility to rulers, and schooled in temperate common counsel. It is an institution of political noonday, not of the half-light of political dawn. It can never be made to sit easily or safely on first generations, but strengthens through long heredity. It is poison to the infant, but tonic to the man. Monarchies may be made, but democracies must grow.

It is a deeply significant fact, therefore, again and again to be called to mind, that only in the United States, in a few other governments begotten of the English race, and in Switzerland, where old Teutonic habit has had the same persistency as in England, have examples yet been furnished of successful democracy of the modern type. England herself is close upon democracy. Her backwardness in entering upon its full practice is no less instructive as to the conditions prerequisite to democracy than is the forwardness of her offspring. She sent out to all her colonies which escaped the luckless beginning of being made penal settlements, comparatively small, homogeneous populations of pioneers, with strong instincts of self-government, and with no social materials out of which to build government otherwise than democratically. She, herself, meanwhile, retained masses of population never habituated to participation in government, untaught in political principle either by the teachers of the hustings or of the school-house. She has had to approach democracy, therefore, by slow and cautious extensions of the franchise to those prepared for it; while her better colonies, born into democracy, have had to receive all comers within their pale. She has been paring down exclusive privileges and levelling classes; the colonies have from the first been asylums of civil equality. They have assimilated new while she has prepared old populations.

Erroneous as it is to represent government as only a commonplace sort of business, little elevated in method above merchandising, and to be regulated by counting-house principles, the favor easily won for such views among our own people is very significant. It means self-reliance in government. It gives voice to the eminently modern democratic feeling that government is no hidden cult, to be left to a few specially prepared individuals, but a common, every-day concern of life, even if the biggest such concern. It is this self-confidence, in many cases mistaken, no doubt, which is gradually spreading among other peoples, less justified in it than are our own.

One cannot help marvelling that facts so obvious as these should have escaped the perception of some of the sagest thinkers and most thorough historical scholars of our day. Yet so it is. Sir Henry Maine, even, the great interpreter to Englishmen of the historical forces operative in law and social institutions, has utterly failed, in his plausible work on *Popular Government*, to distinguish the democracy, or rather the popular government, of the English race, which is bred by slow circumstance and founded upon habit, from the democracy of other peoples, which is bred by discontent and founded upon revolution. He has missed that most obvious teaching of events, that successful democracy differs from unsuccessful in being a product of history—a product of forces not suddenly become operative, but slowly working upon whole peoples for generations together. The level of democracy is the level of everyday habit, the level of common national experiences, and lies far below the elevations of ecstasy to which the revolutionist climbs.

III

While there can be no doubt about the derivation of our government from habit rather than from doctrine, from English experience rather than from European thought; while it is evident that our institutions were originally but products of a long, unbroken, unperverted constitutional history; and certain that we shall preserve our institutions in their integrity and efficiency only so long as we keep true in our practice to the traditions from which our first strength was derived, there is, nevertheless, little doubt that the forces peculiar to the new civilization of our day, and not only these, but also the restless forces of European democratic thought and anarchic turbulence brought to us in such alarming volume by immigration, have deeply affected and may deeply modify the forms and habits of our politics.

All vital governments — and by vital governments I mean those which have life in their outlying members as well as life in their heads — all systems in which self-government lives and retains its self-possession, must be governments by neighbors, by peoples not only homogeneous, but characterized within by the existence among their members of a quick sympathy and easy neighborly knowledge of each other. Not foreseeing steam and electricity or the diffusion of news and knowledge which we have witnessed, our fathers were right in thinking it impossible for the government which they had founded to spread without strain or break over the whole of the continent. Were not California now as near neighbor to the Atlantic States as Massachusetts then was to New York, national self-government on our present scale would assuredly hardly be possible, or conceivable even. Modern science, scarcely less than our pliancy and steadiness in political habit, may be said to have created the United States of to-day.

Upon some aspects of this growth it is very pleasant to dwell, and very profitable. It is significant of a strength which it is inspiring to contemplate. The advantages of bigness accompanied by abounding life are many and invaluable. It is impossible among us to hatch in a corner any plot which will affect more than a corner. With life everywhere throughout the continent, it is impossible to seize illicit power over the whole people by seizing any central offices. To hold Washington would be as useless to a usurper as to hold Duluth. Self-government cannot be usurped.

A French writer has said that the autocratic ascendency of Andrew Jackson illustrated anew the long-credited tendency of democracies to give themselves over to one hero. The country is older now than it was when Andrew Jackson delighted in his power, and few can believe that it would again approve or applaud childish arrogance and ignorant arbitrariness like his; but even in his case, striking and ominous as it was, it must not be overlooked that he was suffered only to strain the Constitution, not to break it. He held his office by orderly election; he exercised its functions within the letter of the law; he could silence not one word of hostile criticism; and, his second term expired, he passed into private life as harmlessly as did James Monroe. A nation that can quietly reabsorb a vast victorious army is no

more safely free and healthy than is a nation that could reabsorb such a President as Andrew Jackson, sending him into seclusion at the Hermitage to live without power, and die almost forgotten.

A huge, stalwart body politic like ours, with quick life in every individual town and county, is apt, too, to have the strength of variety of judgment. Thoughts which in one quarter kindle enthusiasm may in another meet coolness or arouse antagonism. Events which are fuel to the passions of one section may be but as a passing wind to another section. No single moment of indiscretion, surely, can easily betray the whole country at once. There will be entire populations still cool, self-possessed, unaffected. Generous emotions sometimes sweep whole peoples, but, happily, evil passions, sinister views, base purposes, do not and cannot. Sedition cannot surge through the hearts of a wakeful nation as patriotism can. In such organisms poisons diffuse themselves slowly; only healthful life has unbroken course. The sweep of agitations set afoot for purposes unfamiliar or uncongenial to the customary popular thought is broken by a thousand obstacles. It may be easy to reawaken old enthusiasms, but it must be infinitely hard to create new ones, and impossible to surprise a whole people into unpremeditated action.

It is well to give full weight to these great advantages of our big and strenuous and yet familiar way of conducting affairs; but it is imperative at the same time to make very plain the influences which are pointing towards changes in our politics—changes which threaten loss of organic wholeness and soundness. The union of strength with bigness depends upon the maintenance of character, and it is just the character of the nation which is being most deeply affected and modified by the enormous immigration which, year after year, pours into the country from Europe. Our own temperate blood, schooled to self-possession and to the measured conduct of self-government, is receiving a constant infusion and yearly experiencing a partial corruption of foreign blood. Our own equable habits have been crossed with the feverish humors of the restless Old World. We are unquestionably facing an ever-increasing difficulty of self-command with ever-deteriorating materials, possibly with degenerating fibre. We have so far succeeded in retaining

> "Some sense of duty, something of a faith,
> Some reverence for the laws ourselves have made,
> Some patient force to change them when we will,
> Some civic manhood firm against the crowd;"

But we must reckon our power to continue to do so with a people made up of "minds cast in every mould of race—minds inheriting every bias of environment, warped by the diverse histories of a score of different nations, warmed or chilled, closed or expanded, by almost every climate on the globe."

What was true of our early circumstances is not true of our present. We are not now simply carrying out under normal conditions the principles and habits of English constitutional history. Our tasks of construction are not done. We have not simply to conduct, but also to preserve and freshly adjust our government. Europe has sent her habits to us, and she has sent also her political philosophy, a philosophy which has never been purged by the cold bath of practical politics. The communion which we did not have at first with her heated and mistaken ambitions, with her radical, speculative habit in politics, with her readiness to experiment in forms of government, we may possibly have to enter into now that we are receiving her populations. Not only printing and steam and electricity have gotten hold of us to expand our English civilization, but also those general, and yet to us alien, forces of democracy of which mention has already been made; and these are apt to tell disastrously upon our Saxon habits in government.

IV

It is thus that we are brought to our fourth and last point. We have noted (1) the general forces of democracy which have been sapping old forms of government in all parts of the world; (2) the error of supposing ourselves indebted to those forces for the creation of our gov-

ernment, or in any way connected with them in our origins; and (3) the effect they have nevertheless had upon us as parts of the general influences of the age, as well as by reason of our vast immigration from Europe. What, now, are the new problems which have been prepared for our solution by reason of our growth and of the effects of immigration? They may require as much political capacity for their proper solution as any that confronted the architects of our government.

These problems are chiefly problems of organization and leadership. Were the nation homogeneous, were it composed simply of later generations of the same stock by which our institutions were planted, few adjustments of the old machinery of our politics would, perhaps, be necessary to meet the exigencies of growth. But every added element of variety, particularly every added element of foreign variety, complicates even the simpler questions of politics. The dangers attending that variety which is heterogeneity in so vast an organism as ours are, of course, the dangers of disintegration—nothing less; and it is unwise to think these dangers remote and merely contingent because they are not as yet very menacing. We are conscious of oneness as a nation, of vitality, of strength, of progress; but are we often conscious of common thought in the concrete things of national policy? Does not our legislation wear the features of a vast conglomerate? Are we conscious of any national leadership? Are we not, rather, dimly aware of being pulled in a score of directions by a score of crossing influences, a multitude of contending forces?

This vast and miscellaneous democracy of ours must be led; its giant faculties must be schooled and directed. Leadership cannot belong to the multitude; masses of men cannot be self-directed, neither can groups of communities. We speak of the sovereignty of the people, but that sovereignty, we know very well, is of a peculiar sort; quite unlike the sovereignty of a king or of a small, easily concerting group of confident men. It is judicial merely, not creative. It passes judgment or gives sanction, but it cannot direct or suggest. It furnishes standards, not policies. Questions of government are infinitely complex questions, and no multitude can of themselves form clear-cut, comprehensive, consistent conclusions touching them. Yet without such conclusions, without single and prompt purposes, government cannot be carried on. Neither legislation nor administration can be done at the ballot-box. The people can only accept the governing act of representatives. But the size of the modern democracy necessitates the exercise of persuasive power by dominant minds in the shaping of popular judgments in a very different way from that in which it was exercised in former times. "It is said by eminent censors of the press," said Mr. Bright on one occasion in the House of Commons, "that this debate will yield about thirty hours of talk, and will end in no result. I have observed that all great questions in this country require thirty hours of talk many times repeated before they are settled. There is much shower and much sunshine between the sowing of the seed and the reaping of the harvest, but the harvest is generally reaped after all." So it must be in all self-governing nations of to-day. They are not a single audience within sound of an orator's voice, but a thousand audiences. Their actions do not spring from a single thrill of feeling, but from slow conclusions following upon much talk. The talk must gradually percolate through the whole mass. It cannot be sent straight through them so that they are electrified as the pulse is stirred by the call of a trumpet. A score of platforms in every neighborhood must ring with the insistent voice of controversy; and for a few hundreds who hear what is said by the public speakers, many thousands must read of the matter in the newspapers, discuss it interjectionally at the breakfast-table, desultorily in the street-cars, laconically on the streets, dogmatically at dinner; all this with a certain advantage, of course. Through so many stages of consideration passion cannot possibly hold out. It gets chilled by over-exposure. It finds the modern popular state organized for giving and hearing counsel in such a way that those who give it must be careful that it is such counsel as will wear well. Those who hear it handle and ex-

amine it enough to test its wearing qualities to the utmost. All this, however, when looked at from another point of view, but illustrates an infinite difficulty of achieving energy and organization. There is a certain peril almost of disintegration attending such phenomena.

Every one now knows familiarly enough how we accomplished the wide aggregations of self-government characteristic of the modern time, how we have articulated governments as vast and yet as whole as continents like our own. The instrumentality has been representation, of which the ancient world knew nothing, and lacking which it always lacked national integration. Because of representation and the railroads to carry representatives to distant capitals, we have been able to rear colossal structures like the government of the United States as easily as the ancients gave political organization to a city; and our great building is as stout as was their little one.

But not until recently have we been able to see the full effects of thus sending men to legislate for us at capitals distant the breadth of a continent. It makes the leaders of our politics, many of them, mere names to our consciousness instead of real persons whom we have seen and heard, and whom we know. We have to accept rumors concerning them, we have to know them through the variously colored accounts of others; we can seldom test our impressions of their sincerity by standing with them face to face. Here certainly the ancient pocket republics had much the advantage of us: in them citizens and leaders were always neighbors; they stood constantly in each other's presence. Every Athenian knew Themistocles's manner, and gait, and address, and felt directly the just influence of Aristides. No Athenian of a later period needed to be told of the vanities and fopperies of Alcibiades, any more than the elder generation needed to have described to them the personality of Pericles.

Our separation from our leaders is the greater peril, because democratic government more than any other needs organization in order to escape disintegration; and it can have organization only by full knowledge of its leaders and full confidence in them. Just because it is a vast body to be persuaded, it must know its persuaders; in order to be effective, it must always have choice of men who are impersonated policies. Just because none but the finest mental batteries, with pure metals and unadulterated acids, can send a current through so huge and yet so rare a medium as democratic opinion, it is the more necessary to look to the excellence of these instrumentalities. There is no permanent place in democratic leadership except for him who "hath clean hands and a pure heart." If other men come temporarily into power among us, it is because we cut our leadership up into so many small parts, and do not subject any one man to the purifying influences of centred responsibility. Never before was consistent leadership so necessary; never before was it necessary to concert measures over areas so vast, to adjust laws to so many interests, to make a compact and intelligible unit out of so many fractions, to maintain a central and dominant force where there are so many forces.

It is a noteworthy fact that the admiration for our institutions which has during the past few years so suddenly grown to large proportions among publicists abroad is almost all of it directed to the restraints we have effected upon the action of government. Sir Henry Maine thought our federal Constitution an admirable reservoir, in which the mighty waters of democracy are held at rest, kept back from free destructive course. Lord Rosebery has wondering praise for the security of our Senate against usurpation of its functions by the House of Representatives. Mr. Goldwin Smith supposes the saving act of organization for a democracy to be the drafting and adoption of a written constitution. Thus it is always the static, never the dynamic, forces of our government which are praised. The greater part of our foreign admirers find our success to consist in the achievement of stable safeguards against hasty or retrogressive action; we are asked to believe that we have succeeded because we have taken Sir Archibald Alison's advice, and have resisted the infection of revolution by staying quite still.

But, after all, progress is motion, government is action. The waters of democ-

racy are useless in their reservoirs unless they may be used to drive the wheels of policy and administration. Though we be the most law-abiding and law-directed nation in the world, law has not yet attained to such efficacy among us as to frame, or adjust, or administer itself. It may restrain, but it cannot lead us; and I believe that unless we concentrate legislative leadership—leadership, that is, in progressive policy—unless we give leave to our nationality and practice to it by such concentration, we shall sooner or later suffer something like national paralysis in the face of emergencies. We have no one in Congress who stands for the nation. Each man stands but for his part of the nation; and so management and combination, which may be effected in the dark, are given the place that should be held by centred and responsible leadership, which would of necessity work in the focus of the national gaze.

What is the valuable element in monarchy which causes men constantly to turn to it as to an ideal form of government, could it but be kept pure and wise? It is its cohesion, its readiness and power to act, its abounding loyalty to certain concrete things, to certain visible persons, its concerted organization, its perfect model of progressive order. Democracy abounds with vitality; but how shall it combine with its other elements of life and strength this power of the governments that know their own minds and their own aims? We have not yet reached the age when government may be made impersonal

The only way in which we can preserve our nationality in its integrity and its old-time originative force in the face of growth and imported change is by concentrating it; by putting leaders forward, vested with abundant authority in the conception and execution of policy. There is plenty of the old vitality in our national character to tell, if we will but give it leave. Give it leave, and it will the more impress and mould those who come to us from abroad. I believe that we have not made enough of leadership.

"A people is but the attempt of many
To rise to the completer life of one;
And those who live as models for the mass
Are singly of more value than they all."

We shall not again have a true national life until we compact it by such legislative leadership as other nations have. But once thus compacted and embodied, our nationality is safe.

Democratic Clubs. The opposition party to Washington formed many clubs or societies to express sympathy with France and the principles of the French Revolution in 1793 and 1794. They passed out of existence about the end of the 18th century. See GENEST, EDMOND CHARLES: DEMOCRATIC SOCIETIES.

Democratic Party. For the origin and early development of the party, see the article REPUBLICAN PARTY. Its main tenets were strict construction of the Constitution and opposition to extension of the federal powers. Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe were members of the then dominant party, and under the last-named President party lines for a short time disappeared in the so-called "era of good feeling." Soon afterwards the Democrats came under the leadership of Jackson, and were opposed to the National Republicans and Whigs. Jackson's successor, Van Buren, was a Democrat. A Whig interval (1841–45) ensued. Then followed the Democratic administration of Polk, succeeded (1849–53) by another Whig administration. Pierce and Buchanan were the last Presidents elected by the party for a long period. In the general confusion caused by the increasing prominence of slavery the Democrats at first profited, while the Whigs disappeared. In the Civil War many "war Democrats" acted temporarily with the Republicans. McClellan, though defeated, received a large popular vote in 1864. Seymour in 1868, Greeley in 1872 were defeated. In 1876 the Democrats came near success (see ELECTORAL COMMISSION; HAYES, RUTHERFORD BURCHARD; TILDEN, SAMUEL JONES). The House was now frequently Democratic, but the Presidency was again taken by their competitors in 1880. In 1884 they succeeded in a close campaign. The two wings of the party, revenue reform and protectionist, long refused to work together. Under the leadership of Morrison, Carlisle, and Cleveland, tariff reform became the dominating issue. Defeated in 1888, the Democrats gained a sweeping victory in 1890, and in 1892

regained control of all departments, only to lose all again in 1896, when the party allowed itself to be diverted from its original principles by the Populists and silver men. In 1900 the same elements controlled it, with the addition of the anti-expansionists. In 1896, 1900, 1904, and 1908 it lost its national ticket, and in 1910 made such sweeping gains throughout the country that it elected 11 out of 26 governors, reduced the Republican majority in the United States Senate from 28 to 10, and changed the Republican majority of 46 to a Democratic majority of 55 in the House (Sixty-second Congress, 1911–13.) See BRYAN, WILLIAM JENNINGS.

THE CONTRAST.

Democratic Societies. In imitation of the Jacobin clubs in Paris, members of the Republican party, at about the time when Genet arrived from France, formed secret associations, which they called "Democratic societies." Their ideas and feelings were almost wholly French, and a large proportion of their membership consisted of French people. They were disloyal to the government of the United States and sought to control the politics of the Union. They seem to have been inspired with the fanaticism which at that time controlled France. They vigorously denounced and opposed Washington's proclamation of neutrality. The societies existed in various States, and first introduced the word "Democrat" into American politics. Many of the Republican party would not adopt the word, preferring the old name, until the combined opposition became known as the Democratic Republican party. The Democratic societies flourished for a while with great vigor. Their members were pledged to secrecy. Each society had a distinct seal of its own, which was attached to the certificate of every member, in which he was commended to the good offices of every similar society in the Union. The informed and thoughtful citizens saw scarcely any resemblance between French and American democracy. The former assumed the aspect of violence in every form, while the latter was calm, just, and peaceful. A pamphlet was published in 1796 in which the difference is delineated by an engraving called *The Contrast.* They opposed the measures of Washington's administration, especially those measures adopted to suppress the Whiskey Insurrection of 1794. Shortly after that these societies began to dwindle in numbers and soon disappeared.

The certificate of membership in these societies read as follows: "To all other societies established on principles of LIBERTY, EQUALITY, UNION, PATRIOTIC VIRTUE, AND PERSEVERANCE: We, the members of the Republican society of Baltimore, certify and declare to all Republican or Democratic societies, and to all Republicans individually that Citizen —— hath been admitted, and now is a member of our society, and that, from his known zeal

to promote Republican principles and the rights of humanity, we have granted him this our certificate (which he has signed in the margin), and do recommend

SIEUR DE MONTS.

him to all Republicans, that they may receive him with fraternity, which we offer to all those who may come to us with similar credentials. In witness whereof, etc. Alexander McKinn, president; George Sears, secretary." The seal of the Baltimore Society, which issued the above certificate, is composed of a figure of Liberty, with pileus, Phrygian cap, and fasces, with the name of the society.

De Monts, Sieur (Pierre de Gast), was a wealthy Huguenot, who was commissioned viceroy of New France, with full powers to settle and rule in a region extending over six degrees of latitude, from Cape May to Quebec. The domain was named Cadié in the charter (see Acadia). Vested with the monopoly of the fur-trade in the region of the river and gulf of St. Lawrence, they attempted to make a settlement on the former. Making arrangements with Champlain as chief navigator, De Monts sailed from France in March, 1604, with four ships, well manned, accompanied by his bosom friend, the Baron de Poutrincourt, and Pont-Grevé as his lieutenants; and finding the St. Lawrence ice-bound, on his arrival early in April, he determined to make a settlement farther to the southward. The ships also bore a goodly company of Protestant and Roman Catholic emigrants, with soldiers, artisans, and convicts. There were several Jesuits in the company. Passing around Cape Breton and the peninsula of Nova Scotia into the Bay of Fundy, they anchored in a fine harbor on the northern shore of that peninsula early in May. Poutrincourt was charmed with the country, and was allowed to remain with a part of the company, while De Monts, with the remainder, seventy in number, went to Passamaquoddy Bay, and on an island near the mouth of the St. Croix, built a fort, and there spent a terribly severe winter, that killed half of them.

In the spring they returned to Poutrincourt's settlement, which he had named Port Royal—now Annapolis, N. S. Early the next autumn De Monts and Poutrincourt returned to France, leaving Champlain and Pont-Grevé to make further explorations. There was a struggle for rule and existence at Port Royal for a few years. Poutrincourt returned to France for recruits for his colony. Jesuit

priests who accompanied him on his return to Acadia (Nova Scotia) claimed the right to supreme rule by virtue of their holy office. When he finally left Port Royal (1612) in charge of his son, the Jesuit priests made the same claim on the fiery young Poutrincourt, who threatened them with corporal punishment, when they withdrew to Mount Desert Island and set up a cross in token of sovereignty. They were there in 1613, when Samuel Argall, a freebooter of the seas, went, under the sanction of the governor of Virginia, to drive the French from Acadia as intruders on the soil of a powerful English company. The Jesuits at Mount Desert, it is said, thirsting for vengeance, piloted Argall to Port Royal. He plundered and burned the town, drove the inhabitants to the woods, and broke up the settlement. De Monts's monopoly was partially revoked in 1608. Soon afterwards the fortune of De Monts was so much reduced that he could not pursue his scheme of colonization, and it was abandoned.

Denby, CHARLES, diplomatist; born in Mt. Joy, Va., June 16, 1830; became a lawyer; was a colonel of Union volunteers in the Civil War; resumed practice; was minister to China in 1885–98; in latter year was made a member of the commission on the conduct of the war with Spain; and in 1899 a member of the Philippine Commission. During the war between China and Japan the Japanese government placed its interests in China in his care. He died in Jamestown, N. Y., Jan. 13, 1904.

Denison, DANIEL, military officer; born in England in 1613; settled in New England about 1631; was commissioner to arrange the differences with D'Aulny, the French commander at Penobscot, in 1646 and 1653; and later was major-general of the colonial forces for ten years. He was made commander-in-chief of the Massachusetts troops in 1675, but owing to illness during that year was not able to lead his forces in the Indian War. He published *Irenicon, or Salve for New England's Sore.* He died in Ipswich, Mass., Sept. 20, 1682.

Denison, FREDERIC, clergyman; born in Stonington, Conn., Sept. 28, 1819; graduated at Brown College in 1847; ordained to the Baptist ministry; chaplain of the 3d Rhode Island Heavy Artillery for three years in the Civil War. His publications include *History of the 1st Rhode Island Cavalry; Westerly and its Witnesses for 250 Years; History of the 3d Rhode Island Heavy Artillery,* etc. He died in Providence, R. I., Aug. 16, 1901.

Denison, JOHN LEDYARD, historian; born in Stonington, Conn., Sept. 19, 1826; published *Pictorial History of Wars of the United States; Pictorial History of the Navy of the United States;* and edited *Illustrated History of the New World* in English and German. He died in 1906.

Dennie, JOSEPH, journalist; born in Boston, Aug. 30, 1768; graduated at Harvard in 1790; became a lawyer; but abandoned his profession for the pursuit of literature. He contributed articles to various newspapers, while yet practising law, over the signature of "Farrago." In 1795 he became connected with a Boston weekly newspaper called *The Tablet.* It survived only three months, when Dennie became the editor of the *Farmer's Weekly Museum,* at Walpole, N. H., which acquired an extensive circulation. To it he contributed a series of attractive essays under the title of *The Lay Preacher.* These gave their author a high reputation and were extensively copied into the newspapers of the country. After editing for a short time the *United States Gazette,* he commenced, in conjunction with Asbury Dickens, the *Portfolio,* a periodical, which acquired a high reputation. In that publication he adopted the literary name of "Oliver Oldschool." He died Jan. 7, 1812.

Dennison, WILLIAM, war governor; born in Cincinnati, O., Nov. 23, 1815; was educated at the Miami University, and graduated in 1835. Admitted to the bar in 1840, he became an eminent practitioner. In 1848–50 he was a member of the Ohio legislature; and he took an active part in financial and railroad matters. Mr. Dennison was one of the founders of the Republican party in 1856. In 1860 he was chosen governor of Ohio, which office he held two years, during which time he performed most important official service in putting troops into the field for the Union army. From October, 1864, to July, 1866, he was Postmaster-

WILLIAM DENNISON.

General, when he withdrew from the cabinet of President Johnson. He died in Columbus, O., June 15, 1882.

De Nonville, MARQUIS, military officer; after reaching the rank of colonel in the French army was appointed (1685) governor of Canada, with instructions to "humble the pride of the Iroquois," who were the friends of the English and had rejected overtures from the French. He took post at Fort Frontenac, on the site of Kingston, Canada, and there prepared for an expedition against a portion of the Five Nations. He declared to his sovereign that the Indians sustained themselves only by the aid of the English, who were "the chief promoters of the insolence and arrogance of the Iroquois." He tried to induce them to meet him in council, to seduce them from the influence of the English, and a few went to Frontenac; but when Dongan heard of the designs of the French he invited representatives of the Five Nations to a council in New York City. They came, and Dongan told them the King of England would be their "loving father," and conjured them not to listen to the persuasions of the French. Finally, in May, 1687, De Nonville was joined by 800 French regulars from France, and soon afterwards he, assembling more than 2,000 French regulars, Canadians, and Indians, proceeded, at their head, to attack the Senecas. He coasted along the southern shores of Lake Ontario to Irondequoit Bay, in Monroe county, where he landed and was joined by some French and Indians coming from the west. Thence he penetrated to Ontario county, where he was attacked by a party of Senecas in ambush, but he repulsed his assailants. The next day two old Seneca prisoners, after having been confessed by the Jesuit priests, were cooked and eaten by the savages and the French. Withdrawing to a point in Monroe county, De Nonville proceeded to take possession of the whole Seneca country (July, 1687) in the name of King Louis, with pompous ceremonies. After destroying all the stored corn (more than 1,000,000 bushels), the growing crops, cabins, and a vast number of swine belonging to the natives whose country he had invaded, De Nonville returned to Irondequoit Bay and thence to Montreal. An act of gross treachery committed by him before he undertook the expedition, in seizing deputies from those nations and sending them to France, gave the deathblow to Jesuit missions among the Five Nations. Lamberville, a faithful missionary, barely escaped with his life, through the generosity of the Onondagas.

Dent, FREDERICK TRACY, military officer; born in White Haven, Mo., Dec. 17, 1820; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1843; served in the war with Mexico with marked distinction; and later was prominent in frontier duty. In 1863–64 he commanded a regiment in New York City to suppress riots; in the latter year he became a staff officer to General Grant; and in 1865 was commandant of Richmond and of the garrison at Washington. After the war he received the brevets of brigadier-general in the regular and volunteer armies; retired in 1883. He died in Denver, Col., Dec. 24, 1892.

Dent, JOHN HERBERT, naval officer; born in Maryland in 1782; entered the navy in 1798; served on the frigate *Constellation* in 1799 when she captured the French vessels *Insurgente* and *La Vengeance*. He had command of the *Nautilus* and *Scourge* in Preble's squadron during the war with Tripoli, and took part in the assault on the city of Tripoli in 1804; and was promoted captain in 1811. He died in St. Bartholomew's parish, Md. July 31, 1823.

Dentistry, SCHOOLS OF. The develop

ment of the science of dentistry in the United States is well attested by the number of institutions giving instruction therein. In 1911 there were fifty-three such schools, having 1,546 professors and instructors, 6,439 students, and graduating classes aggregating 1.588 students.

Denton, DANIEL, author; in 1670 he published in London *A Brief Description of New York*, which in 1845 was republished with notes in New York. It is believed that this was the first printed English history of New York and New Jersey.

De Pauw, WASHINGTON CHARLES, philanthropist; born in Salem, Ind., Jan. 4, 1822. He aided the Indiana Asbury University, for which its name was changed to De Pauw University. He also founded De Pauw College for women and several charitable institutions in New Albany. He died at New Albany, Ind., May 5, 1887.

DEPENDENT CHILDREN, CARE OF

Dependent Children, CARE OF. Henrietta Christian Wright, an American lady who has taken an active interest in philanthropic work, and has been specially interested in the condition of poor children deprived of their natural protectors, and whose education and training, therefore, have to be assumed by the community, writes as follows:

The history of the state care of children the world over has been that of the workhouse or almshouse. In France, indeed, boarding-out seems to have been applied widely as early as 1450, when an ordinance was passed regulating the salaries of the nurses and agents employed in caring for pauper children in country homes. Fosterage existed even earlier in England, where, in the reign of Edward III., an act was passed forbidding English children from being cared for by Irish foster parents, as it had been found that such care denationalized the children. Statistics attest the evils of the workhouse and the almshouse, where the children were herded with adult paupers, unfitting them for anything but lives of pauperism and lowest crime.

The efforts of private individuals at last rescued the workhouse waifs, and placed them in institutions set apart for the care of children alone. Here the child was made cleanly in habit, and amenable to discipline, while ophthalmia, scrofula, and other diseases inherent in institution life showed some signs of abatement. But when the child left the institution, it was found that he still lacked in the great essential to success—capacity. From the system of constant espionage and guidance, and the reduction to mechanical routine of all the ordinary offices of life, the child had become dulled in faculty, unthinking, and dependent. In the institution he had been, during the formative period of his life, a "number," and he "ate, drank, studied, marched, played, and slept in companies, platoons, and regiments." A visitor to one institution found a class of boys between eleven and thirteen years of age who had never brushed their own hair, the matron having found it easier to stand them in rows and perform this service for them than to teach each individual boy how to do it for himself. Hundreds of girls in their teens left the institution yearly who had never made a fire, placed a tea-kettle to boil, or performed any of the minor household duties so necessary to their training as domestic servants. It was, in fact, discovered that the child who, at great expense to the state, had been fed and taught for a long period of years was less capable of earning his living than the youth who had grown up "half naked and half starved" in his parents' cottage in the peat bogs of Ireland.

The pauper child, helpless and hopeless, had made an appeal to nature, and nature had avenged him. In place of the promise of youth and the ideals which were to guarantee the security of the state, she returned, for value received, the institutionalized youth, a drag upon society, and, in the end, an added burden to the taxpayer. Grave as were these defects, there was added the still graver one that institutions increased juvenile pauperism. Wherever a new institution arose, there sprang up, as if from the ground, hun-

dreds of applicants for admission. The idle and vicious parents eagerly took advantage of the means thus offered for the support of their children during the non-wage-earning period; and, with every new gift of a costly edifice, the state found itself putting a premium upon the poverty it was vainly endeavoring to stamp out.

In the mean time a remedy for the evil had already arisen. In 1828, an education inquiry commission, reporting upon the condition of the Protestant charter schools of Ireland, found so discreditable a state of things that the schools were abolished, no provision being made, meanwhile, for the orphans of that faith. Not long afterwards, three Protestant Irish workingmen, considering it their duty to care for the children of a comrade who had just died, started a subscription of a penny a week, and, with the sum of threepence as capital, founded a refuge for the children among some respectable laboring people of their own faith.

On the ruins of the charter schools arose, from the act of these workingmen, the Protestant Orphan Society of Ireland, which has been the parent of the modern system of boarding-out the dependent children of the state. The methods of this society have been sustained, in the main, by succeeding organizations. The orphans were placed, as far as possible, in the families of small farmers, or laborers, whose station in life corresponded to their own. In every case, the children were given into the charge of the mother of the family, who was made directly responsible for their care. A certificate of character was required from the parish priest and the nearest magistrate, attesting to her "morality and sobriety, to the suitability of her house and family, and the possession of one or more cows," while it was also stipulated that she receive no children from the foundling hospital or any other charitable institution. The homes were visited by inspectors, whose reports contained the history of every child while under the care of the society. The Protestant clergyman of each district was also a regular correspondent of the society, and the foster-mothers were required to present themselves and their wards at the annual meetings of the society, the society paying the travelling expenses. It was found that the cost under the boarding-out system was one-third *per capita* of that expended in institutions, while the rate of mortality was under 1 per cent. In 1859, thirty-one years after the establishment of the society, the death rate of the children in a single workhouse in Cork was 80 per cent. in one year, while nearly all the survivors were afflicted with scrofula. These horrors were exceeded by the revelations of the Dublin workhouse, which so excited popular indignation that an act was passed in 1862 authorizing the boarding-out of workhouse children.

That the problem of the state care of children was solved by the incorporation of the Protestant Orphan Society of Ireland is proved by the subsequent history of dependent child-life in nearly every civilized quarter of the globe. In places widely separated by geographical limits, as well as by the differences of race and creed, the state care of children is evolving from institutionalism to the natural conditions of home life. England, Ireland, Russia, Italy, Scotland, Germany, Switzerland, and other European countries have their several modifications of the boarding-out system, attributable to the varying conditions of social life, but conforming in the main to the leading features of the original plan. And although no one of these countries is yet freed entirely from the bane of institutionalism, yet year by year fosterage is becoming more popular, as its beneficent effects become more and more widely known. In Belgium, so thoroughly recognized is the value of home training for future citizens, that *all* boys under the care of the state are boarded out, though the girls are in many cases still retained in institutions. In some of the departments of France, the system of fosterage has arrived at the precision of a military organization. Here the child, who would otherwise be placed in a foundling or orphan asylum, is enrolled at birth as an *enfant de la patrie*, and, whenever possible, is placed at once in a foster-home in the country. There his physical and moral welfare and his

education are watched over by the *agent de surveillance,* in whose quarterly reports is recorded the history of the child until his twelfth year. He is then eligible for apprenticeship, and he receives from the state a certain sum of money for an outfit. But, in nearly all cases, the affection between the child and its foster-parents has become by this time so strong that he is either adopted legally or retained in the family as an apprentice, the money that he earns being placed in the savings-bank, in order that he may have a little capital to begin the world with on reaching his majority.

Australia has, perhaps, the most perfect system of boarding-out yet evolved. As early as 1852 the first legislature of South Australia decreed that no public money should be given to denominational schools, whether educational or charitable. Twenty-five years ago the state began boarding-out its dependent children; the saving to the government, as well as the rapid decrease in the juvenile pauper class, at once made the new departure acceptable, though the law compelling children to attend school throughout the entire year increased the expense of fosterage in Australia beyond that in European countries.

The American poorhouse, from the first fell into line with the English workhouse in its influence as a breeder of crime and pauperism. The poorhouse child came either from the directly vicious class, or from those "waterlogged" families with whom pauperism was hereditary, and, as a rule, he left his early home but to return to it in later life. The enactment of each new law to mitigate the evils of the almshouse only made the idle and vicious parent more eager to accept the advantages thus offered to his offspring, and pauperism increased out of all proportion to the growth of the country.

Outside the almshouse there was a condition even worse. All over the country, and especially in cities, there arose a class of children who anticipated in character the adult tramp of to-day. These were in many cases runaways, to whom the restraints of the almshouse were irksome, and they also formed the larger proportion of juvenile criminals. In 1848 there were, in New York City alone, 30,000 such waifs, known as "street children," who had no homes, who begged and stole their food, who slept in the streets, assisted professional criminals in their nefarious practices, and in time were graduated into the ranks of the adult criminal. This menace to society, undreamed of by the more orderly class, was made officially public by the report of the superintendent of police, and out of the exigency arose, in 1853, the New York Children's Aid Society, whose president, Charles Loring Brace, grasped with the intuition of genius the true solution of the problem of child-saving. When Mr. Brace asked the chief of police to confer with him in regard to means for saving these children, the chief replied that the attempt would be useless. Nevertheless Mr. Brace began his work; and, knowing that this wreckage of civilization could be saved only by a return to nature, he at once began placing the wards of the society in homes in the East and West. In 1854 the first company of forty-six children left the office of the society, the greater number to find homes in Michigan and Iowa. Within the second year the society had placed nearly 800 children in homes in the Eastern and Western States. The society has continued its work on the same lines, and through its efforts thousands of men and women have been saved from lives of pauperism and crime. The reports of the society, which has always kept in touch with its wards, show how fully the faith of its founders has been justified, and how they builded even better than they knew. From out this army of waifs, rescued from the gutter and the prison, there have come the editor, the judge, the bank president, the governor, while thousands of simpler careers attest the beneficence of this noble charity. There is small reason to doubt that, if the guardianship of the entire dependent children of the State had been given over to the Children's Aid Society, the question of juvenile pauperism and crime would long since have been solved. But this was not to be, and almshouses and institutions still retained the greater number of children committed to their care. The evil was greatly augmented by the passage of the now celebrated "children's law" in 1875, which

contained a clause providing that all children committed to institutions should be placed in those controlled by persons of the same religious faith as the parents of the children. Mrs. Charles Russell Lowell says: "The direct effect of this provision is found in the establishment of nine Roman Catholic and two Hebrew institutions to receive committed children, all except three having between 300 and 1,300 inmates each."

Within twenty years after this law passed the number of inmates in the twenty-seven institutions benefited directly by it increased from 9,000 to 16,000. In 1889, of the 20,384 children cared for in the city institutions, only 1,776 were orphans and 4,987 half-orphans. The remaining 13,621 had been committed by magistrates, many on the request of parents, or had been brought by parents voluntarily to the institution. In Kings county alone, five years after the passage of the "children's law," the number of dependent children increased from 300 to 1,479, most of the commitments being made by parents anxious to be relieved of the care of their children until the wage-earning period was reached. Another objectionable feature arose from the greater length of time that children have been retained in institutions since the passage of the law. With a direct *per capita* income from the State, the institutions have not been able to withstand the temptation to keep their charges as long as possible. The reports of the comptroller's office for October, 1894, showed that 1,935 children in institutions had been inmates over five years; fifty-five of these were in Protestant institutions, 268 in Hebrew institutions, and 1,612 in Roman Catholic institutions. The same year showed an average of 567 children in institutions between thirteen and fourteen years of age, 444 between fourteen and fifteen, and 247 between fifteen and sixteen years of age. One institution in 1892 had wards twenty-two years old, and was "caring for" 129 youths over seventeen years of age. In 1894 it was found that 23 per cent. of the dependent children of New York City had been in institutions at public cost over periods ranging from five to fourteen years. A report of the State board of charities for 1873, three years before the passage of the "children's law," showed that only 8 per cent. of the total had been in institutions over five years. An equally striking fact is that, since the passage of the "children's law," the number of children placed in families by institutions has greatly decreased. In 1875, out of 14,773 children in institutions, there were 823 placed in families. In 1884, out of 33,558 children in institutions, there were only 1,370 placed in families. While the population of the State of New York increased but 38 per cent. during the first seventeen years after the passage of the law, the number of children in institutions increased 96 per cent.

In New York City a report of 1894 shows the distribution of its 15,331 dependent children as follows: 1,975 in Hebrew institutions, 2,789 in Protestant institutions, 10,567 in Roman Catholic institutions. This did not include the blind, deaf, feeble-minded, and delinquent children who are cared for in special institutions.

As opposed to its institutions, the State has, in several of its counties, adopted to some degree the more natural method of child-saving, with marked results. Alarmed at the increasing expense of its juvenile institutions, Erie county in 1879 began to take measures for boarding-out its dependent children, and through the mediumship of the newspapers the agent placed the needs of the county before the people. He also interested clergymen and editors in the project. Advertising cards, with pictures of the children, were sent out, and this vigorous canvass resulted in speedy applications for the children, who were sent to good country homes by the score. The agent always impressed upon the foster-parents the fact that the child was still the ward of the county, which expected them to co-operate with it in training him to a life of usefulness. The chief opposition came from the institutions, which in many cases refused to let the children go. But the board of supervisors met this obstacle by reducing the *per capita* price of board, and by passing a resolution declaring that, if any child was refused to the county's agent, the superintendent of the poor would at once stop payment for his board. This opened

the doors of the institutions, and Erie county, which in 1879 was paying $48,000 yearly for the support of its dependent children, had by 1892 decreased its expenses two-thirds, though the population had increased one-third. Monroe, Westchester, and Orange counties also placed out their children to some extent.

When the revised constitution went into effect there were 15,000 children, or more, in institutions in New York City, costing the city over $1,500,000 yearly. The institutions throughout the State received about $2,500,000 yearly for the support of their charges. The revised constitution gave the State board of charities jurisdiction over all the charities in the State, whether public or private, and a law was enacted by the legislature putting the placing-out of children into the hands of this board. Under this law, during the years 1896 and 1897, 1,500 children were placed in homes in the rural communities. The number of children in institutions was further decreased by the action of the State Charities Aid Association in appointing examiners to investigate the status of the children already in institutions, or for whom application had been made. The official report of the examiners for 1896 and 1897 shows that, out of 26,561 investigations, 7,303 cases were disapproved, though the children in many cases had been in the institutions for years.

Boys of twelve, thirteen, fifteen, sixteen, and seventeen years of age were found, whose families were amply able to provide for them, but who had been supported by the State for periods ranging from six to nine years. One girl of sixteen was found who had spent twelve years of her life in institutions, being left at the critical age without home ties or interests, and with an utter lack of training in ordinary domestic affairs. The monthly reports from the comptroller's office show a pecuniary saving from the decrease of dependent children, while the moral gains through the return of these children to the normal ways of life is, of course, incalculable. Hitherto the State of New York has paid two-fifths of all the money spent in the United States for the care of dependent children, while child pauperism has increased three times as fast as the general population. When New York City had a population of 1,750,000, it supported over 15,000 children in institutions, or one dependent child to every 117 of population. The number of dependent children in Philadelphia in 1894 was one to every 1,979 of its population. This difference arises from the fact that Philadelphia had ceased to be an institutionalized city, and boarded or placed out nearly all its dependent children, the Philadelphia Children's Aid Society being the agent employed. Nearly every county poor-board also takes advantage of its aid to place its dependent children, as far as possible, in its care. During the thirteen years of its existence the Children's Aid Society had received about 6,004 children from the various almshouses, poor-boards, and courts, and placed them in homes in the country. It has the names of over 700 families whose respectability and fitness are vouched for, the society's agents having visited and ascertained by personal investigation their status in the community. Most of these families are at a distance of at least 100 miles from any large city, it being deemed best, in case of delinquent children especially, to bring them up amid strictly rural surroundings. The attitude of the society towards its charges is that "its duty to the child is not one of mere support, but one of preparation for life," and that the sole question arising in the mind of the observer of city-institution life should be, "Is the precise thing which I am looking at the very best thing that can be provided, in order that the child may have the same reliance which makes the country boy, on the whole, the best wage-earner that the city ever sees?"

The society possesses thousands of records attesting the happiness and well-being of its wards, and the unwritten records obtained through personal visits from its agents are more satisfactory still. The agent finds the little sickly two-year-old, whom she left a few months before hardly expecting to see it alive again, well nourished and radiant with returning vitality, surrounded by toys, dressed in clean clothing, the care and the pet of the whole family. One baby, left at the age of eleven months unable

to hold up its head or sit alone, had been restored to perfect health. The foster-mother here had expressed a preference for a "real smart baby," one that she could show off to her neighbors. But, as she bent over this tiny sufferer, his little, thin face made its undeniable appeal, and she said, as she cried over him, that "somebody would have to keep him, and she calculated she could do it as well as any one else." The agent carries away innumerable mental pictures of these little waifs who have found home and health in the beautiful hill country of Pennsylvania. She sees the children on the benches of the village school, or sharing the innocent pleasures of childhood in wood and meadow. She finds them in the barn or field with the foster-father, picking up useful knowledge, learning ways of industry and honest living, and, above all, sharing the interest of the family as if he were to the manor born. Very often these boarded-out children step into a place left vacant by death, and often they bring to a childless home the first knowledge of the privileges and blessings that come with children. The society has innumerable photographs showing the children in their comfortable homes, studying in the cosey sitting-rooms, playing games with the farmer's older boys, or with the farmer himself, and sharing, in fact, in all the simple and sweet scenes of family life.

A most careful method of supervision is enforced by the society, not only through frequent visits of its agents, but through numerous reports made by the physicians, school-teachers, and other reliable and interested persons. Question blanks are sent for these reports, which are filed and make a full record of the child's history while under the care of the society. As far as possible, the children are boarded in families of the same religion as that of their parents. In order not to create a class distinction, the society does not allow the boarded-out children of a village or farming district ever to exceed 2 or 3 per cent. of the child population.

Massachusetts, with a population to the square mile exceeding that of New York, and in which the artificial conditions of living are practically the same, has no dependent children, technically speaking, in institutions supported by the State. Largely affected by the problem of immigration, and under the strain produced by great centres of population engaged in mill and factory work, and so removed from the more healthful influences of smaller village and country life, this State has yet so successfully solved the problem of juvenile pauperism that, out of a population of 2,500,000, it has only 2,852 wards to support. The State has a nursery at Roxbury, where destitute infants are cared for while requiring medical or surgical treatment, and where children boarded out are brought for treatment when necessary. The nursery is a temporary home only in the strictest sense of the word, boarding-out being the end in view. There is also a temporary boarding-place at Arlington, and a home for wayward boys. The State has two industrial schools, the Lyman School for Boys, and the State Industrial School for Girls. There are also two reform schools. With these exceptions, the dependent children of Massachusetts are placed or boarded out.

In 1889 California paid $231,215 for the support of 36,000 children in asylums, while Michigan, with double the population of California, paid only $35,000 for the support of 230 children. In 1893, California, still working under the old system, paid $250,000 for the support of 40,000 children in institutions, while Minnesota, with a population about equal to California, supported only 169 dependent children in its State public schools, the remainder being placed or boarded out.

There are, in all, perhaps eight or nine States in the Union in which boarding-out and placing-out are carried on in greater or less degree, these systems affecting about three-tenths of the dependent children in the country. The remaining seven-tenths, numbering more than 70,000, are still in institutions.

The United States is an institutionalized land, and the great republic, which boasts of freedom and equality, still regards her dependent children as aliens and brands them with the stigma of pauperism.

The evolutionist sees the earliest manifestation of altruism in that primary instinct, found even in the lowest forms of plant life, to protect the young in the seed and bud—the instinct of motherhood. Upon this eternal principle of life the problem of child-saving must rest. There is no one so morally fit to rear an unfortunate child as the mother of a respectable family, whose experience with her own brood has taught her the needs and demands of childhood. Nowhere else is so abundantly manifested that trust in the "larger hope" as in the patience that waits upon motherhood. To this patience and this hope the State may well commit the welfare of its most unfortunate class. For, although the institution life of to-day is not accompanied by all the horrors that once disfigured it, yet sore eyes, diseased bodies, and a high death rate still prevail. According to the official report of 1897 the death rate at the Infants' Asylum on Randall's Island was, for foundlings, 80 per cent.; for other children without their mothers, 59 per cent.; children with their mothers, 13 per cent. Out of 366 children under six months of age, admitted without their mothers in 1896, only twelve lived, the remainder dying between five and six weeks after admission to the asylum. Institutionalism is an artificial system, with the stigma of failure attaching to it, inasmuch as its presence always indicates an increase of the very evil it was originally meant to combat. Without admitting as truth the statement, made by some experts, that all institution-bred children turn out either knaves or fools, sufficient testimony may be found to force home the startling argument that, of the 100,000 children cared for by the State to-day, there is grave danger that the seven-tenths who are in institutions will carry through life the brand of a system which has handicapped them in the race for success.

Supplementary to the foregoing, attention is called to a monograph prepared by James H. Van Sickle, Lightner Uitneer, and Leonard P. Ayres, and issued by the United States Bureau of Education in 1911, on *Provision for Exceptional Children in Public Schools*, in which the socialization of public-school work and the individualization of the child were considered with much thoroughness.

A summary of statistics shows:

1. In a normal school population about one-half of one per cent. of the children are genuinely mentally deficient and should be treated in institutions. 2. Ranking above these comes a group of feeble-minded children, constituting about 3½ per cent. of the school membership. These children are educable in special classes of public schools, but few of them can become independent members of the community. 3. Ranking above these children comes a larger group of mentally sound but slow children. This group constitutes from 10 to 50 per cent. of the membership, and in the average city amounts to about 33 per cent. These are normal individuals for whom the present school curriculum and *régime* are ill adapted. In most cities a majority of them are boys. 4. Ranking above these pupils is the large mass of school children who make substantially normal progress through the grades and some of whom make rapid progress. These constitute from 40 to 80 per cent. of the school membership. 5. At the upper end of the scale comes a group of unusually bright or talented children, the super-normal, composing about 4 per cent. of the total number.

In response to a circular of inquiry, issued by the Commissioner of the Bureau of Education to 1,285 superintendents of city schools throughout the United States, 895 reports were received, showing that 152 cities were making provision for morally exceptional children, 373 for the mentally exceptional, 91 for the physically exceptional, and 346 for the environmentally exceptional. Each of these groups was subdivided into special classes, according to the condition of its constituents individually. Another grouping shows (1) the institutional cases, comprising children who should be dismissed from the oversight and care of public-school authorities; (2) the children requiring special instruction in public schools; (3) the children of uncertain classification, who may be cases for either institutional or special care, as ordinary defectives, delinquents, or physically unfortunate (cripples, epileptics, etc.).

Depew, CHAUNCEY MITCHELL, capitalist; born in Peekskill, N. Y., April 23, 1834; graduated at Yale University in 1856; studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1858; member of New York Assembly in 1861–62; secretary of state of New York in 1863. He became attorney for the New York and Harlem River Railroad in 1866, and for the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad in 1869. He was second vice-president of the last mentioned road in 1885–98, and also president of the West Shore Railroad until 1898, when he became chairman of the board of directors of the New York Central and Hudson River, the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern, the Michigan Central, and the New York, Chicago, and St. Louis railroads. In 1885 he refused to be a candidate for the United States Senate, and also declined the office of United States Secretary of State, offered by President Benjamin Harrison. In 1888 he was a prominent candidate for the Presidential nomination in the National Republican Convention, and in 1899–1911 was a United States Senator from New York. He is widely known as an orator and after-dinner speaker.

CHAUNCEY MITCHELL DEPEW.

Washington Centennial Oration.—On April 30, 1889, Senator Depew delivered the following oration at the centennial of Washington's inauguration as first President of the United States, in New York City:

We celebrate to-day the centenary of our nationality. One hundred years ago the United States began their existence. The powers of government were assumed by the people of the republic, and they became the sole source of authority. The solemn ceremonial of the first inauguration, the reverent oath of Washington, the acclaim of the multitude greeting their President, marked the most unique event of modern times in the development of free institutions. The occasion was not an accident, but a result. It was the culmination of the working out by mighty forces through many centuries of the problem of self-government. It was not the triumph of a system, the application of a theory, or the reduction to practice of the abstractions of philosophy. The time, the country, the heredity and environment of the people, the folly of its enemies, and the noble courage of its friends, gave to liberty, after ages of defeat, of trial, of experiment, of partial success and substantial gains, this immortal victory. Henceforth it had a refuge and recruiting station. The oppressed found free homes in this favored land, and invisible armies marched from it by mail and telegraph, by speech and song, by precept and example, to regenerate the world.

Puritans in New England, Dutchmen in New York, Catholics in Maryland, Huguenots in South Carolina, had felt the fires of persecution and were wedded to religious liberty. They had been purified in the furnace, and in high debate and on bloody battle-fields had learned to sacrifice all material interests and to peril their lives for human rights. The principles of constitutional government had been impressed upon them by hundreds of years of struggle, and for each principle they could point to the grave of an ancestor whose death attested the ferocity of the fight and the value of the concession wrung from arbitrary power. They knew the limitations of authority, they could pledge their lives and fortunes to resist encroachments upon their rights, but it required the lesson of Indian massa-

cres, the invasion of the armies of France from Canada, the tyranny of the British crown, the seven years' war of Revolution, and the five years of chaos of the Confederation to evolve the idea upon which rest the power and permanency of the republic, that liberty and union are one and inseparable.

The traditions and experience of the colonists had made them alert to discover and quick to resist any peril to their liberties. Above all things, they feared and distrusted power. The town-meetings and the colonial legislature gave them confidence in themselves, and courage to check the royal governors. Their interests, hopes, and affections were in their several commonwealths, and each blow by the British ministry at their freedom, each attack upon their rights as Englishmen, weakened their love for the motherland, and intensified their hostility to the crown. But the same causes which broke down their allegiance to the central government increased their confidence in their respective colonies, and their faith in liberty was largely dependent upon the maintenance of the sovereignty of their several States. The farmers' shot at Lexington echoed round the world, the spirit which it awakened from its slumbers could do and dare and die, but it had not yet discovered the secret of the permanence and progress of free institutions. Patrick Henry thundered in the Virginia convention; James Otis spoke with trumpet tongue and fervid eloquence for united action in Massachusetts; Hamilton, Jay, and Clinton pledged New York to respond with men and money for the common cause; but their vision only saw a league of independent colonies. The veil was not yet drawn from before the vista of population and power, of empire and liberty, which would open with national union.

The Continental Congress partially grasped, but completely expressed, the central idea of the American republic. More fully than any other body which ever assembled did it represent the victories won from arbitrary power for human rights. In the New World it was the conservator of liberties secured through centuries of struggle in the Old. Among the delegates were the descendants of the men who had stood in that brilliant array upon the field of Runnymede, which wrested from King John Magna Charta, that great charter of liberty, to which Hallam, in the nineteenth century, bears witness "that all which had been since obtained is little more than as confirmation or commentary." There were the grandchildren of the statesmen who had summoned Charles before Parliament and compelled his assent to the Petition of Rights, which transferred power from the crown to the commons, and gave representative government to the English-speaking race. And there were those who had sprung from the iron soldiers who had fought and charged with Cromwell at Naseby and Dunbar and Marston Moor. Among its members were Huguenots, whose fathers had followed the white plume of Henry of Navarre and in an age of bigotry, intolerance, and the deification of absolutism had secured the great edict of religious liberty from French despotism; and who had become a people without a country, rather than surrender their convictions and forswear their consciences. In this Congress were those whose ancestors were the countrymen of William of Orange, the Beggars of the Sea, who had survived the cruelties of Alva, and broken the proud yoke of Philip of Spain, and who had two centuries before made a declaration of independence and formed a federal union which were models of freedom and strength.

These men were not revolutionists, They were the heirs and the guardians of the priceless treasures of mankind. The British King and his ministers were the revolutionists. They were reactionaries, seeking arbitrarily to turn back the hands upon the dial of time. A year of doubt and debate, the baptism of blood upon battle-fields, where soldiers from every colony fought, under a common standard, and consolidated the Continental army, gradually lifted the soul and understanding of this immortal Congress to the sublime declaration: "We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the World for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united

colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States."

To this declaration John Hancock, proscribed and threatened with death, affixed a signature which stood for a century like the pointers to the north star in the firmament of freedom; and Charles Carroll, taunted that among many Carrolls, he, the richest man in America, might escape, added description and identification with "of Carrollton." Benjamin Harrison, a delegate from Virginia, the ancestor of the distinguished statesman and soldier who to-day so worthily fills the chair of Washington, voiced the unalterable determination and defiance of the Congress. He seized John Hancock, upon whose head a price was set, in his arms, and placing him in the Presidential chair, said: "We will show Mother Britain how little we care for her by making our President a Massachusetts man, whom she has excluded from pardon by public proclamation"; and when they were signing the declaration, and the slender Elbridge Gerry uttered the grim pleasantry, "We must hang together or surely we will hang separately," the portly Harrison responded with a more daring humor, "It will be all over with me in a moment, but you will be kicking in the air half an hour after I am gone." Thus flashed athwart the great charter, which was to be for the signers a death-warrant or a diploma of immortality, as with firm hand, high purpose and undaunted resolution, they subscribed their names, this mockery of fear and the penalties of treason.

The grand central idea of the Declaration of Independence was the sovereignty of the people. It relied for original power, not upon States or colonies, or their citizens as such, but recognized as the authority for nationality the revolutionary rights of the people of the United States. It stated with marvellous clearness the encroachments upon liberties which threatened their suppression and justified revolt, but it was inspired by the very genius of freedom, and the prophetic possibilities of united commonwealths covering the continent in one harmonious republic, when it made the people of the thirteen colonies all Americans and devolved upon them to administer by themselves, and for themselves, the prerogatives and powers wrested from crown and parliament. It condensed Magna Charta, the Petition of Rights, the great body of English liberties embodied in the common law and accumulated in the decisions of the courts, the statutes of the realm, and an undisputed though unwritten constitution; but this original principle and dynamic force of the people's power sprang from these old seeds planted in the virgin soil of the New World.

More clearly than any statesman of the period did Thomas Jefferson grasp and divine the possibilities of popular government. He caught and crystallized the spirit of free institutions. His philosophical mind was singularly free from the power of precedents or the chains of prejudice. He had an unquestioning and abiding faith in the people, which was accepted by but few of his compatriots. Upon his famous axiom, of the equality of all men before the law, he constructed his system. It was the trip-hammer essential for the emergency to break the links binding the colonies to imperial authority, and to pulverize the privileges of caste. It inspired him to write the Declaration of Independence, and persuaded him to doubt the wisdom of the powers concentrated in the Constitution. In his passionate love of liberty he became intensely jealous of authority. He destroyed the substance of royal prerogative, but never emerged from its shadow. He would have the States as the guardians of popular rights, and the barriers against centralization, and he saw in the growing power of the nation ever - increasing encroachments upon the rights of the people. For the success of the pure democracy which must precede presidents and cabinets and congresses, it was, perhaps, providential that its apostle never believed a great people could grant and still retain, could give and at will reclaim, could delegate and yet firmly hold the authority which ultimately created the power of their republic and enlarged the scope of their own liberty.

Where this master-mind halted, all stood still. The necessity for a permanent union was apparent, but each State must have hold upon the bowstring which encircled its throat. It was admitted that

union gave the machinery required successfully to fight the common enemy, but yet there was fear that it might become a Frankenstein and destroy its creators. Thus patriotism and fear, difficulties of communication between distant communities, and the intense growth of provincial pride and interests, led this Congress to frame the Articles of Confederation, happily termed the League of Friendship. The result was not a government, but a ghost. By this scheme the American people were ignored and the Declaration of Independence reversed. The States, by their legislatures, elected delegates to Congress, and the delegate represented the sovereignty of his commonwealth. All the States had an equal voice without regard to their size or population. It required the vote of nine States to pass any bill, and five could block the wheels of government. Congress had none of the powers essential to sovereignty. It could neither levy taxes nor impose duties nor collect excise. For the support of the army and navy, for the purposes of war, for the preservation of its own functions, it could only call upon the States, but it possessed no power to enforce its demands. It had no president or executive authority, no supreme court with general jurisdiction, and no national power. Each of the thirteen States had seaports and levied discriminating duties against the others, and could also tax and thus prohibit interstate commerce across its territory. Had the Confederation been a union instead of a league, it could have raised and equipped three times the number of men contributed by reluctant States, and conquered independence without foreign assistance. This paralyzed government, without strength, because it could not enforce its decrees; without credit, because it could pledge nothing for the payment of its debts; without respect, because without inherent authority; would, by its feeble life and early death, have added another to the historic tragedies which have in many lands marked the suppression of freedom, had it not been saved by the intelligent, inherited, and invincible understanding of liberty by the people, and the genius and patriotism of their leaders.

But while the perils of war had given temporary strength to the Confederation, peace developed this fatal weakness. It derived no authority from the people, and could not appeal to them. Anarchy threatened its existence at home, and contempt met its representatives abroad. "Can you fulfil or enforce the obligations of the treaty on your part if we sign one with you?" was the sneer of the courts of the Old World to our ambassadors. Some States gave a half-hearted support to its demands; others defied them. The loss of public credit was speedily followed by universal bankruptcy. The wildest fantasies assumed the force of serious measures for the relief of the general distress. States passed exclusive and hostile laws against each other, and riot and disorder threatened the disintegration of society. "Our stock is stolen, our houses are plundered, our farms are raided," cried a delegate in the Massachusetts Convention; "despotism is better than anarchy!" To raise $4,000,000 a year was beyond the resources of the government, and $300,000 was the limit of the loan it could secure from the money-lenders of Europe. Even Washington exclaimed in despair: "I see one head gradually changing into thirteen; I see one army gradually branching into thirteen; which, instead of looking up to Congress as the supreme controlling power, are considering themselves as depending on their respective States." And later, when independence had been won, the impotency of the government wrung from him the exclamation: "After gloriously and successfully contending against the usurpation of Great Britain, we may fall a prey to our own folly and disputes."

But even through this Cimmerian darkness shot a flame which illuminated the coming century and kept bright the beacon fires of liberty. The architects of constitutional freedom formed their institutions with wisdom which forecasted the future. They may not have understood at first the whole truth, but, for that which they knew, they had the martyrs' spirit and the crusaders' enthusiasm. Though the Confederation was a government of checks without balances, and of purpose without power, the statesmen who guided it demonstrated often the resistless force of great souls animated by the purest pa-

triotism, and united in judgment and effort to promote the common good, by lofty appeals and high reasoning, to elevate the masses above local greed and apparent self-interest to their own broad plane.

The most significant triumph of these moral and intellectual forces was that which secured the assent of the States to the limitation of their boundaries, to the grant of the wilderness beyond them to the general government, and to the insertion in the ordinance erecting the Northwest Territories, of the immortal proviso prohibiting "slavery or involuntary servitude" within all that broad domain. The States carved out of this splendid concession were not sovereignties which had successfully rebelled, but they were the children of the Union, born of the covenant and thrilled with its life and liberty. They became the bulwarks of nationality and the buttresses of freedom. Their preponderating strength first checked and then broke the slave power, their fervid loyalty halted and held at bay the spirit of State rights and secession for generations; and when the crisis came, it was with their overwhelming assistance that the nation killed and buried its enemy. The corner-stone of the edifice whose centenary we are celebrating was the ordinance of 1787. It was constructed by the feeblest of Congresses, but few enactments of ancient or modern times have had more far-reaching or beneficial influence. It is one of the sublimest paradoxes of history that this weak confederation of States should have welded the chain against which, after seventy-four years of fretful efforts for release, its own spirit frantically dashed and died.

The government of the republic by a Congress of States, a diplomatic convention of the ambassadors of petty commonwealths, after seven years' trial was falling asunder. Threatened with civil war among its members, insurrection and lawlessness rife within the States, foreign commerce ruined and internal trade paralyzed, its currency worthless, its merchants bankrupt, its farms mortgaged, its markets closed, its labor unemployed, it was like a helpless wreck upon the ocean, tossed about by the tides and ready to be engulfed by the storm. Washington gave the warning and called for action. It was a voice accustomed to command, but now entreating. The veterans of the war and the statesmen of the Revolution stepped to the front. The patriotism which had been misled, but had never faltered, rose above its interests of States and the jealousies of jarring confederates to find the basis for union. "It is clear to me as A B C," said Washington, "that an extension of federal powers would make us one of the most happy, wealthy, respectable, and powerful nations that ever inhabited the terrestrial globe. Without them we should soon be everything which is the direct reverse. I predict the worst consequences from a half-starved, limping government, always moving upon crutches, and tottering at every step." The response of the country was the convention of 1787, at Philadelphia. The Declaration of Independence was but the vestibule of the temple which this illustrious assembly erected. With no successful precedents to guide, it auspiciously worked out the problem of constitutional government, and of imperial power and home rule, supplementing each other in promoting the grandeur of the nation and preserving the liberty of the individual.

The deliberations of great councils have vitally affected, at different periods, the history of the world and the fate of empires, but this congress builded, upon popular sovereignty, institutions broad enough to embrace the continent, and elastic enough to fit all conditions of race and traditions. The experience of a hundred years has demonstrated for us the perfection of the work, for defence against foreign foes and for self-preservation against domestic insurrections, for limitless expansion in population and material development, and for steady growth in intellectual freedom and force. Its continuing influence upon the welfare and destiny of the human race can only be measured by the capacity of man to cultivate and enjoy the boundless opportunities of liberty and law. The eloquent characterization of Mr. Gladstone condenses its merits: "The American Constitution is the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man."

The statesmen who composed this great

senate were equal to their trust. Their conclusions were the result of calm debate and wise concession. Their character and abilities were so pure and great as to command the confidence of the country for the reversal of the policy of the independence of the State of the power of the general government, which had hitherto been the invariable practice and almost universal opinion, and for the adoption of the idea of the nation and its supremacy.

Towering in majesty and influence above them all stood Washington, their President. Beside him was the venerable Franklin, who, though eighty-one years of age, brought to the deliberations of the convention the unimpaired vigor and resources of the wisest brain, the most hopeful philosophy, and the largest experience of the times. Oliver Ellsworth, afterwards chief-justice of the United States, and the profoundest juror in the country; Robert Morris, the wonderful financier of the Revolution, and Gouverneur Morris, the most versatile genius of his period; Roger Sherman, one of the most eminent of the signers of the Declaration of Independence; and John Rutledge, Rufus King, Elbridge Gerry, Edmund Randolph, and the Pinckneys, were leaders of unequalled patriotism, courage, ability, and learning; while Alexander Hamilton and James Madison, as original thinkers and constructive statesmen, rank among the immortal few whose opinions have for ages guided ministers of state, and determined the destinies of nations.

This great convention keenly felt, and with devout and serene intelligence met, its tremendous responsibilities. It had the moral support of the few whose aspirations for liberty had been inspired or renewed by the triumph of the American Revolution, and the active hostility of every government in the world.

There were no examples to follow, and the experience of its members led part of them to lean towards absolute centralization as the only refuge from the anarchy of the confederation, while the rest clung to the sovereignty of the States, for fear that the concentration of power would end in the absorption of liberty. The large States did not want to surrender the advantage of their position, and the smaller States saw the danger to their existence. Roman conquest and assimilation had strewn the shores of time with the wrecks of empires, and plunged civilization into the perils and horrors of the dark ages. The government of Cromwell was the isolated power of the mightiest man of his age, without popular authority to fill his place or the hereditary principle to protect his successor. The past furnished no light for our State builders, the present was full of doubt and despair. The future, the experiment of self-government, the perpetuity and development of freedom, almost the destiny of mankind, was in their hands.

At this crisis the courage and confidence needed to originate a system weakened. The temporizing spirit of compromise seized the convention with the alluring proposition of not proceeding faster than the people could be educated to follow. The cry, "Let us not waste our labor upon conclusions which will not be adopted, but amend and adjourn," was assuming startling unanimity. But the supreme force and majestic sense of Washington brought the assemblage to the lofty plane of its duty and opportunity. He said: "It is too probable that no plan we propose will be adopted. Perhaps another dreadful conflict is to be sustained. If, to please the people, we offer what we ourselves disapprove, how can we afterwards defend our work? Let us raise a standard to which the wise and honest can repair: the event is in the hands of God." "I am the state," said Louis XIV., but his line ended in the grave of absolutism. "Forty centuries look down upon you," was Napoleon's address to his army in the shadow of the Pyramids, but his soldiers saw only the dream of Eastern empire vanish in blood. Statesmen and parliamentary leaders have sunk into oblivion or led their party to defeat by surrendering their convictions to the passing passions of the hour; but Washington in this immortal speech struck the keynote of representative obligation, and propounded the fundamental principle of the purity and perpetuity of constitutional government.

Freed from the limitations of its en-

vironment, and the question of the adoption of its work, the convention erected its government upon the eternal foundations of the power of the people. It dismissed the delusive theory of a compact between independent States, and derived national power from the people of the United States. It broke up the machinery of the Confederation and put in practical operation the glittering generalities of the Declaration of Independence. From chaos came order, from insecurity came safety, from disintegration and civil war came law and liberty, with the principle proclaimed in the preamble of the great charter: "We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States." With a wisdom inspired of God, to work out upon this continent the liberty of man, they solved the problem of the ages by blending and yet preserving local self-government with national authority, and the rights of the States with the majesty and power of the republic. The government of the States, under the Articles of Confederation, became bankrupt because it could not raise $4,000,000; the government of the Union, under the Constitution of the United States, raised $6,000,000,000, its credit growing firmer as its power and resources were demonstrated. The Congress of the Confederation fled from a regiment which it could not pay; the Congress of the Union reviewed the comrades of 1,000,000 of its victorious soldiers, saluting, as they marched, the flag of the nation, whose supremacy they had sustained. The promises of the confederacy were the scoff of its States; the pledge of the republic was the honor of its people.

The Constitution, which was to be straightened by the strains of a century, to be a mighty conqueror without a subject province, to triumphantly survive the greatest of civil wars without the confiscation of an estate or the execution of a political offender, to create and grant home rule and State sovereignty to twenty-nine additional commonwealths, and yet enlarge its scope and broaden its powers, and to make the name of an American citizen a title of honor throughout the world, came complete from this great convention to the people for adoption. As Hancock rose from his seat in the old Congress, eleven years before, to sign the Declaration of Independence, Franklin saw emblazoned on the back of the President's chair the sun partly above the horizon, but it seemed setting in a blood-red sky. During the seven years of the Confederation he had gathered no hope from the glittering emblem, but now, as with clear vision he beheld fixed upon eternal foundations the enduring structure of constitutional liberty, pointing to the sign, he forgot his eighty-two years, and with the enthusiasm of youth electrified the convention with the declaration: "Now I know that it is the rising sun."

The pride of the States and the ambition of their leaders, sectional jealousies, and the overwhelming distrust of centralized power, were all arrayed against the adoption of the Constitution. North Carolina and Rhode Island refused to join the Union until long after Washington's inauguration. For months New York was debatable ground. Her territory, extending from the sea to the lakes, made her the keystone of the arch. Had Arnold's treason in the Revolution not been foiled by the capture of André, England would have held New York and subjugated the colonies, and in this crisis, unless New York assented, a hostile and powerful commonwealth dividing the States made the Union impossible.

Success was due to confidence in Washington and the genius of Alexander Hamilton. Jefferson was the inspiration of independence, but Hamilton was the incarnation of the Constitution. In no age or country has there appeared a more precocious or amazing intelligence than Hamilton. At seventeen he annihilated the president of his college upon the question of the rights of the colonies in a series of anonymous articles which were credited to the ablest men in the country; at forty-seven, when he died, his briefs had become the law of the land, and his fiscal system was, and after 100 years remains, the rule and policy of our govern-

ment. He gave life to the corpse of national credit, and the strength for self-possession and aggressive power to the federal union. Both as an expounder of the principles and an administrator of the affairs of government he stands supreme and unrivalled in American history. His eloquence was so magnetic, his language so clear and his reasoning so irresistible, that he swayed with equal ease popular assemblies, grave senates, and learned judges. He captured the people of the whole country for the Constitution by his papers in *The Federalist*, and conquered the hostile majority in the New York convention by the splendor of his oratory.

But the multitudes whom no arguments could convince, who saw in the executive power and centralized force of the Constitution, under another name, the dreaded usurpation of king and ministry, were satisfied only with the assurance, "Washington will be President." "Good," cried John Lamb, the able leader of the Sons of Liberty, as he dropped his opposition, "for to no other mortal would I trust authority so enormous." "Washington will be President" was the battle-cry of the Constitution. It quieted alarm and gave confidence to the timid and courage to the weak. The country responded with enthusiastic unanimity, but the chief with the greatest reluctance. In the supreme moment of victory, when the world expected him to follow the precedents of the past and perpetuate the power a grateful country would willingly have left in his hands, he had resigned and retired to Mount Vernon to enjoy in private station his well-earned rest. The convention created by his exertions to prevent, as he said, "the decline of our federal dignity into insignificant and wretched fragments of empire," had called him to preside over its deliberations. Its work made possible the realization of his hope that "we might survive as an independent republic," and again he sought the seclusion of his home. But, after the triumph of the war and the formation of the Constitution, came the third and final crisis: the initial movements of government which were to teach the infant State the steadier steps of empire.

He alone could stay assault and inspire confidence while the great and complicated machinery of organized government was put in order and set in motion. Doubt existed nowhere except in his modest and unambitious heart. "My movements to the chair of government," he said, "will be accompanied by feelings not unlike those of a culprit who is going to the place of his execution. So unwilling am I, in the evening of life, nearly consumed in public cares, to quit a peaceful abode for an ocean of difficulties, without that competency of political skill, abilities, and inclination, which are necessary to manage the helm." His whole life had been spent in repeated sacrifices for his country's welfare, and he did not hesitate now, though there is an undertone of inexpressible sadness in this entry in his diary on the night of his departure: "About 10 o'clock I bade adieu to Mount Vernon, to private life, and to domestic felicity, and with a mind oppressed with more anxious and painful sensations than I have words to express, set out for New York with the best disposition to render service to my country in obedience to its call, but with less hope of answering its expectations."

No conqueror was ever accorded such a triumph, no ruler ever accorded such a welcome. In this memorable march of six days to the capital, it was the pride of States to accompany him with the masses of their people to their borders, that the citizens of the next commonwealth might escort him through its territory. It was the glory of cities to receive him with every civic honor at their gates, and entertain him as the savior of their liberties. He rode under triumphal arches from which children lowered laurel wreaths upon his brow. The roadways were strewn with flowers, and as they were crushed beneath his horse's hoofs, their sweet incense wafted to heaven the ever-ascending prayers of his loving countrymen for his life and safety. The swelling anthem of gratitude and reverence greeted and followed him along the country-side and through the crowded streets: "Long live George Washington! Long live the father of his people!"

His entry into New York was worthy the city and State. He was met by the chief officers of the retiring government

of the country, by the governor of the commonwealth, and the whole population. This superb harbor was alive with fleets and flags, and the ships of other nations, with salutes from their guns and the cheers of their crews, added to the joyous acclaim. But as the captains who had asked the privilege, bending proudly to their oars, rowed the President's barge swiftly through these inspiring scenes, Washington's mind and heart were full of reminiscence and foreboding.

He had visited New York thirty-three years before, also in the month of April, in the full perfection of his early manhood, fresh from Braddock's bloody field, and wearing the only laurels of the battle, bearing the prophetic blessing of the venerable President Davies, of Princeton College, as "that heroic youth Colonel Washington, whom I cannot but hope Providence has hitherto preserved in so signal a manner for some important service to the country." It was a fair daughter of our State whose smiles allured him here, and whose coy confession that her heart was another's recorded his only failure and saddened his departure. Twenty years passed, and he stood before the New York Congress, on this very spot, the unanimously chosen commander-in-chief of the Continental army, urging the people to more vigorous measures, and made painfully aware of the increased desperation of the struggle, from the aid to be given to the enemy by domestic sympathizers, when he knew that the same local military company which escorted him was to perform the like service for the British Governor Tryon on his landing on the morrow. Returning for the defence of the city the next summer, he executed the retreat from Long Island, which secured from Frederick the Great the opinion that a great commander had appeared, and at Harlem Heights he won the first American victory of the Revolution, which gave that confidence to our raw recruits against the famous veterans of Europe which carried our army triumphantly through the war. Six years more of untold sufferings, of freezing and starving camps, of marches over the snow by barefooted soldiers to heroic attack and splendid victory, of despair with an unpaid army, and of hope from the generous assistance of France, and peace had come and independence triumphed. As the last soldier of the invading enemy embarks, Washington, at the head of the patriotic host, enters the city, receives the welcome and gratitude of its people, and in the tavern which faces us across the way, in silence more eloquent than speech, and with tears which choke the words, he bids farewell forever to his companions in arms. Such were the crowding memories of the past suggested to Washington in 1789 by his approach to New York. But the future had none of the splendor of precedent and brilliance of promise which have since attended the inauguration of our Presidents. An untried scheme, adopted mainly because its administration was to be confided to him, was to be put in practice. He knew that he was to be met at every step of constitutional progress by factions temporarily hushed into unanimity by the terrific force of the tidal wave which was bearing him to the President's seat, but fiercely hostile upon questions affecting every power of nationality and the existence of the federal government.

Washington was never dramatic, but on great occasions he not only rose to the full ideal of the event, he became himself the event. One hundred years ago today, the procession of foreign ambassadors, of statesmen and generals, of civic societies and military companies, which escorted him, marched from Franklin Square to Pearl street, through Pearl to Broad, and up Broad to this spot, but the people saw only Washington. As he stood upon the steps of the old government building here, the thought must have occurred to him that it was a cradle of liberty, and, as such, giving a bright omen for the future. In these halls in 1735, in the trial of John Zenger, had been established, for the first time in its history, the liberty of the press. Here the New York Assembly, in 1764, made the protest against the Stamp Act, and proposed the general conference, which was the beginning of united colonial action. In this old State-house, in 1765, the Stamp Act Congress, the first and the father of American congresses, assembled and presented to the English government

that vigorous protest which caused the repeal of the act and checked the first step towards the usurpation which lost the American colonies to the British Empire. Within these walls the Congress of the Confederation had commissioned its ambassadors abroad, and in ineffectual efforts at government had created the necessity for the concentration of federal authority, now to be consummated.

The first Congress of the United States gathered in this ancient temple of liberty, greeted Washington, and accompanied him to the balcony. The famous men visible about him were Chancellor Livingston, Vice-President John Adams, Alexander Hamilton, Governor Clinton, Roger Sherman, Richard Henry Lee, General Knox, and Baron Steuben. But we believe that among the invisible host above him, at this supreme moment of the culmination in permanent triumph of the thousands of years of struggle for self-government, were the spirits of the soldiers of the Revolution who had died that their country might enjoy this blessed day, and with them were the barons of Runnymede, and William the Silent, and Sidney, and Russell, and Cromwell, and Hampden, and the heroes and martyrs of liberty of every race and age.

As he came forward, the multitude in the streets, in the windows, and on the roofs sent up such a rapturous shout that Washington sat down overcome with emotion. As he slowly rose and his tall and majestic form again appeared, the people, deeply affected, in awed silence viewed the scene. The chancellor solemnly read to him the oath of office, and Washington, repeating, said: "I do solemnly swear that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States." Then he reverently bent low and kissed the Bible, uttering with profound emotion: "So help me, God." The chancellor waved his robes and shouted: "It is done; long live George Washington, President of the United States!" "Long live George Washington, our first President!" was the answering cheer of the people, and from the belfries rang the bells, and from forts and ships thundered the cannon, echoing and repeating the cry with responding acclaim all over the land: "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!"

The simple and imposing ceremony over, the inaugural read, the blessing of God prayerfully petitioned in old St. Paul's, the festivities passed, and Washington stood alone. No one else could take the helm of state, and enthusiast and doubter alike trusted only him. The teachings and habits of the past had educated the people to faith in the independence of their States, and for the supreme authority of the new government there stood against the precedent of a century and the passions of the hour little besides the arguments of Hamilton, Madison, and Jay in *The Federalist*, and the judgment of Washington. With the first attempt to exercise national power began the duel to the death between State sovereignty, claiming the right to nullify federal laws or to secede from the Union, and the power of the republic to command the resources of the country, to enforce its authority, and protect its life. It was the beginning of the sixty years' war for the Constitution and the nation. It seared consciences, degraded politics, destroyed parties, ruined statesmen, and retarded the advance and development of the country; it sacrificed thousands of precious lives and squandered thousands of millions of money; it desolated the fairest portion of the land, and carried mourning into every home, North and South; but it ended at Appomattox in the absolute triumph of the republic.

Posterity owes to Washington's administration the policy and measures, the force and direction, which made possible this glorious result. In giving the organization of the Department of State and foreign relations to Jefferson, the Treasury to Hamilton, and the Supreme Court to Jay, he selected for his cabinet and called to his assistance the ablest and most eminent men of his time. Hamilton's marvellous versatility and genius designed the armory and the weapons for the promotion of national power and greatness, but Washington's steady support carried them through. Parties crystallized, and party passions were intense, debates were intemperate, and the Union openly threatened and secretly

plotted against, as the firm pressure of this mighty personality funded the debt and established credit, assumed the State debts incurred in the War of the Revolution and superseded the local by the national obligation, imposed duties upon imports and excise upon spirits, and created revenue and resources, organized a national banking system for public needs and private business, and called out an army to put down by force of arms resistance to the federal laws imposing unpopular taxes. Upon the plan marked out by the Constitution, this great architect, with unfailing faith and unfaltering courage, builded the republic. He gave to the government the principles of action and sources of power which carried it successfully through the wars with Great Britain in 1812 and Mexico in 1848, which enabled Jackson to defeat nullification, and recruited and equipped millions of men for Lincoln, and justified and sustained his proclamation of emancipation.

The French Revolution was the bloody reality of France and the nightmare of the civilized world. The tyranny of centuries culminated in frightful reprisals and reckless revenges. As parties rose to power and passed to the guillotine, the frenzy of the revolt against all authority reached every country and captured the imaginations and enthusiasm of millions in every land, who believed they saw that the madness of anarchy, the overturning of all institutions, the confiscation and distribution of property, would end in a millennium for the masses and the universal brotherhood of man. Enthusiasm for France, our late ally, and the terrible commercial and industrial distress occasioned by the failure of the government under the Articles of Confederation, aroused an almost unanimous cry for the young republic, not yet sure of its own existence, to plunge into the vortex. The ablest and purest statesmen of the time bent to the storm, but Washington was unmoved. He stood like the rock-ribbed coast of a continent between the surging billows of fanaticism and the child of his love. Order is Heaven's first law, and the mind of Washington was order. The Revolution defied God and derided the law. Washington devoutly reverenced the Deity and believed liberty impossible without law. He spoke to the sober judgment of the nation, and made clear the danger. He saved the infant government from ruin, and expelled the French minister who had appealed from him to the people. The whole land, seeing safety only in his continuance in office, joined Jefferson in urging him to accept a second term. "North and South," pleaded the Secretary, "will hang together while they have you to hang to."

No man ever stood for so much to his country and to mankind as George Washington. Hamilton, Jefferson and Adams, Madison and Jay, each represented some of the elements which formed the Union. Washington embodied them all. They fell, at times, under popular disapproval, were burned in effigy, were stoned, but he, with unerring judgment, was always the leader of the people. Milton said of Cromwell, "that war made him great, peace greater." The superiority of Washington's character and genius were more conspicuous in the formation of our government and in putting it on indestructible foundations than in leading armies to victory and conquering the independence of his country. "The Union in any event," is the central thought of his farewell address, and all the years of his grand life were devoted to its formation and preservation. He fought as a youth with Braddock and in the capture of Fort Duquesne for the protection of the whole country. As commander-in-chief of the Continental army, his commission was from the Congress of the united colonies. He inspired the movement for the republic, was the president and dominant spirit of the convention which framed its Constitution, and its President for eight years, and guided its course until satisfied that, moving safely along the broad highway of time, it would be surely ascending towards the first place among the nations of the world, the asylum of the oppressed, the home of the free.

Do his countrymen exaggerate his virtues? Listen to Guizot, the historian of civilization: "Washington did the two greatest things which in politics it is permitted to man to attempt. He maintained by peace the independence of his

country which he conquered by war. He founded a free government in the name of the principles of order and by re-establishing their sway." Hear Lord Erskine, the most famous of English advocates: "You are the only being for whom I have an awful reverence." Remember the tribute of Charles James Fox, the greatest parliamentary orator who ever swayed the British House of Commons: "Illustrious man, before whom all borrowed greatness sinks into insignificance." Contemplate the character of Lord Brougham, pre-eminent for two generations in every department of human activity and thought, and then impress upon the memories of your children his deliberate judgment: "Until time shall be no more will a test of the progress which our race has made in wisdom and virtue be derived from the veneration paid to the immortal name of Washington."

Chatham, who, with Clive, conquered an empire in the East, died broken-hearted at the loss of the empire in the West, by follies which even his power and eloquence could not prevent. Pitt saw the vast creations of his diplomacy shattered at Austerlitz, and fell murmuring: "My country! how I leave my country!" Napoleon caused a noble tribute to Washington to be read at the head of his armies, but, unable to rise to Washington's greatness, witnessed the vast structure erected by conquest and cemented by blood, to minister to his own ambition and pride, crumble into fragments, and, an exile and a prisoner, he breathed his last babbling of battle-fields and carnage. Washington, with his finger upon his pulse, felt the presence of death, and, calmly reviewing the past and forecasting the future, answered to the summons of the grim messenger, "It is well," and, as his mighty soul ascended to God, the land was deluged with tears and the world united in his eulogy. Blot out from the page of history the names of all the great actors of his time in the drama of nations, and preserve the name of Washington, and the century would be renowned.

We stand to-day upon the dividing line between the first and second century of constitutional government. There are no clouds overhead and no convulsions under our feet. We reverently return thanks to Almighty God for the past, and with confident and hopeful promise march upon sure ground towards the future. The simple facts of these 100 years paralyze the imagination, and we contemplate the vast accumulations of the century with awe and pride. Our population has grown from 4,000,000 to 65,000,000. Its centre, moving westward 500 miles since 1789, is eloquent with the founding of cities and the birth of States. New settlements, clearing the forests and subduing the prairies, and adding 4,000,000 to the few thousands of farms which were the support of Washington's republic, create one of the great granaries of the world, and open exhaustless reservoirs of national wealth.

The infant industries, which the first act of our first administration sought to encourage, now give remunerative employment to more people than inhabited the republic at the beginning of Washington's Presidency. The grand total of their annual output of $7,000,000,000 in value places the United States first among the manufacturing countries of the earth. One-half the total mileage of all the railroads, and one-quarter of all the telegraph lines of the world within our borders, testify to the volume, variety, and value of an internal commerce which makes these States, if need be, independent and self-supporting. These 100 years of development under favoring political conditions have brought the sum of our national wealth to a figure which has passed the results of 1,000 years for the motherland herself, otherwise the richest of modern empires.

During this generation, a civil war of unequalled magnitude caused the expenditure and loss of $8,000,000,000, and killed 600,000, and permanently disabled over 1,000,000 young men, and yet the impetuous progress of the North and the marvellous industrial development of the new and free South have obliterated the evidences of destruction, and made the war a memory, and have stimulated production until our annual surplus nearly equals that of England, France, and Germany combined. The teeming millions of Asia till the patient soil and work the

shuttle and loom as their fathers have done for ages; modern Europe has felt the influence and received the benefit of the incalculable multiplication of force by inventive genius since the Napoleonic wars; and yet, only 269 years after the little band of Pilgrims landed on Plymouth Rock, our people, numbering less than one-fifteenth of the inhabitants of the globe, do one-third of its mining, one-fourth of its manufacturing, one-fifth of its agriculture, and own one-sixth of its wealth.

This realism of material prosperity, surpassing the wildest creations of the romancers who have astonished and delighted mankind, would be full of dangers for the present and menace for the future, if the virtue, intelligence, and independence of the people were not equal to the wise regulation of its uses and the stern prevention of its abuses. But following the growth and power of the great factors, whose aggregation of capital made possible the tremendous pace of the settlement of our national domain, the building of our great cities and the opening of the lines of communications which have united our country and created our resources, have come national and State legislation and supervision. Twenty millions, a vast majority of our people of intelligent age, acknowledging the authority of their several churches, 12,000,000 of children in the common schools, 345 universities and colleges for the higher education of men and 200 for women, 450 institutions of learning for science, law, medicine, and theology, are the despair of the scoffer and the demagogue, and the firm support of civilization and liberty.

Steam and electricity have changed the commerce not only, they have revolutionized also the governments of the world. They have given to the press its power, and brought all races and nationalities into touch and sympathy. They have tested and are trying the strength of all systems to stand the strain and conform to the conditions which follow the germinating influences of American democracy. At the time of the inauguration of Washington, seven royal families ruled as many kingdoms in Italy, but six of them have seen their thrones overturned and their countries disappear from the map of Europe. Most of the kings, princes, dukes, and margraves of Germany, who reigned despotically, and sold their soldiers for foreign service, have passed into history, and their heirs have neither prerogatives nor domain. Spain has gone through many violent changes, and the permanency of her present government seems to depend upon the feeble life of an infant prince. France, our ancient friend, with repeated and bloody revolution, has tried the government of Bourbon and convention, of directory and consulate, of empire and citizen king, of hereditary sovereign and republic, of empire, and again republic. The Hapsburg and Hohenzollern, after convulsions which have rocked the foundations of their thrones, have been compelled to concede constitutions to their people and to divide with them the arbitrary power wielded so autocratically and brilliantly by Maria Theresa and Frederick the Great. The royal will of George III. could crowd the American colonies into rebellion, and wage war upon them until they were lost to his kingdom, but the authority of the crown has devolved upon ministers who hold office subject to the approval of the representatives of the people, and the equal powers of the House of Lords have been vested in the Commons, leaving to the peers only the shadow of their ancient privileges. But to-day the American people, after all the dazzling developments of the century, are still happily living under the government of Washington. The Constitution during all that period has been amended only upon the lines laid down in the original instrument, and in conformity with the recorded opinions of the Fathers. The first great addition was the incorporation of a bill of rights, and the last the embedding into the Constitution of the immortal principle of the Declaration of Independence — of the equality of all men before the law. No crisis has been too perilous for its powers, no revolution too rapid for its adaptation, and no expansion beyond its easy grasp and administration. It has assimilated diverse nationalities with warring traditions, customs, conditions, and languages, imbued them with its spirit, and won their passionate loyalty and love.

The flower of the youth of the nations of continental Europe are conscripted from

productive industries and drilling in camps. Vast armies stand in battle array along the frontiers, and a kaiser's whim or a minister's mistake may precipitate the most destructive war of modern times. Both monarchical and republican governments are seeking safety in the repression and suppression of opposition and criticism. The volcanic forces of democratic aspiration and socialistic revolt are rapidly increasing and threaten peace and security. We turn from these gathering storms to the British Isles and find their people in the throes of a political crisis involving the form and substance of their government, and their statesmen far from confident that the enfranchised and unprepared masses will wisely use their power.

But for us no army exhausts our resources nor consumes our youth. Our navy must needs increase in order that the protecting flag may follow the expanding commerce which is successfully to compete in all the markets of the world. The sun of our destiny is still rising, and its rays illumine vast territories as yet unoccupied and undeveloped, and which are to be the happy homes of millions of people. The questions which affect the powers of government and the expansion or limitation of the authority of the federal Constitution are so completely settled, and so unanimously approved, that our political divisions produce only the healthy antagonism of parties, which is necessary for the preservation of liberty. Our institutions furnish the full equipment of shield and spear for the battles of freedom, and absolute protection against every danger which threatens the welfare of the people will always be found in the intelligence which appreciates their value, and the courage and morality with which their powers are exercised. The spirit of Washington fills the executive office. Presidents may not rise to the full measure of his greatness, but they must not fall below his standard of public duty and obligation. His life and character, conscientiously studied and thoroughly understood by coming generations, will be for them a liberal education for private life and public station, for citizenship and patriotism, for love and devotion to union and liberty. With their inspiring past and splendid present, the people of these United States, heirs of 100 years marvellously rich in all which adds to the glory and greatness of a nation, with an abiding trust in the stability and elasticity of their Constitution, and an abounding faith in themselves, hail the coming century with hope and joy.

De Peyster, ABRAHAM, jurist; born in New Amsterdam (New York), July 8, 1658; eldest son of Johannes De Peyster, a noted merchant of his day. Between 1691 and 1695 he was mayor of the city of New York; was first assistant justice and then chief-justice of New York, and was one of the King's council under Governor Hyde (afterwards Lord Cornbury), and as its president was acting-governor for a time in 1701. His mansion in Pearl Street was used by Washington as his headquarters for a while in 1776. He died in New York City, Aug. 10, 1728.

De Peyster, ARENT SCHUYLER, royalist military officer; born in New York City, June 27, 1736; grandson of Col. Abraham Schuyler and nephew of Col. Peter Schuyler. In the Revolutionary War he was a colonel in the Royal army; at different times commanded the British posts of Detroit, Mackinac, and elsewhere in Canada. He died in Dumfries, Scotland, in November, 1832.

De Peyster, JOHANNES, founder of the De Peyster family; born in Haarlem, Holland, about 1600; emigrated to America on account of religious persecution, and died in New York City, about 1685.

De Peyster, JOHN WATTS, military historian; born in New York City, March 9, 1821; elected colonel New York militia in 1845; appointed adjutant-general New York, 1855; is author of *The Dutch at the North Pole; The Dutch in Maine; Decisive Conflicts of the Late Civil War; Life of Gen. Philip Kearny*, etc. He died in New York City, May 5, 1907.

Dermer, THOMAS, was employed by the Plymouth Company after his return from Newfoundland, in 1618, to bring about, if possible, reconciliation with the Indians of New England, and to make further explorations. He sailed from Plymouth early in February, 1619, touched at Mohegan Island, and then visited the coast. Dermer was accompanied from England by Squanto; also by Samoset, a native of

Sagadahock, whom John Mason, governor of Newfoundland, had lately sent home, he having been one of Hunt's captives. Dermer succeeded, in a degree, and proceeded to explore the coast to Virginia. He sent home his ship from Mohegan Island, laden with fish and furs, and, leaving Squanto at Saco, sailed southward. Near Cape Cod he was captured by Indians, but ransomed himself by a gift of some hatchets. Passing Martin's (Martha's) Vineyard, he navigated Long Island Sound by the help of an Indian pilot, the first Englishman who had sailed upon these waters, and passed out to sea at Sandy Hook. The current was so swift that he did not stop at Manhattan; but on his return from Virginia (1620) he touched there and held a conference with some Dutch traders "on Hudson's River," warning them that they were on English territory. Dermer sent a journal of his proceedings to Gorges, and thus, no doubt, hastened the procurement of the new charter for the PLYMOUTH COMPANY (*q. v.*).

Derne Expedition. See TRIPOLI, WAR WITH.

Derry, JOSEPH T., author; born in Milledgeville, Ga., Dec. 13, 1841; graduated at Emory College in 1860; enlisted in the Oglethorpe Infantry in January, 1861, and with his company joined the Confederate army, March 18, 1861; served throughout the war, participating in the West Virginia, the Tennessee, and the Atlanta campaigns, being taken prisoner at the battle of Kenesaw Mountain, June 27, 1864. Among his works are a *School History of the United States; History of Georgia;* and the volume on *Georgia* in the *Confederate Military History* of which Gen. Clement A. Evans is editor.

De Russy, FORT (La.), captured March 14, 1864, by Gen. A. J. Smith with 10,000 Nationals. Gen. Dick Taylor surrendered with about 10,000 men. See RED RIVER EXPEDITION.

Desbarres, JOSEPH FREDERICK WALLET, military officer; born in England, of French ancestry, in 1722; educated for the army at the Royal Military College at Woolwich, and, as lieutenant, came to America in 1756, and, raising 300 recruits in Pennsylvania and Maryland, formed them into a corps of field-artillery. He distinguished himself as an engineer in the siege of LOUISBURG (*q. v.*), and was aide-de-camp to Wolfe when he fell at Quebec, that general dying in Desbarres's arms. He was active in the retaking of Newfoundland in 1762, and for ten years afterwards he was employed in a coast survey of Nova Scotia. He prepared charts of the North American coasts in 1775 for Earl Howe, and in 1777 he published *The Atlantic Neptune,* in two large folios. He was made governor of Cape Breton, with the military command of Prince Edward's Island, in 1784, and in 1804, being then about eighty-two years of age, he was made lieutenant-governor of Prince Edward's Island. He died in Halifax, N. S., Oct. 24, 1824.

Deseret, PROPOSED STATE OF. See MORMONS.

Desert Land Act, passed March 3, 1877, allowing settlers 640 acres for purposes of irrigation and improvement.

De Smet, PETER JOHN, missionary; born in Termonde, Belgium, Dec. 31, 1801; studied in the Episcopal seminary of Mechlin. With five other students he sailed from Amsterdam in 1821 for the United States, and entered the Jesuit school at Whitemarsh, Md. In 1828 he went to St. Louis and aided in founding the University of St. Louis, where he later became a professor. In 1838 he founded a mission among the Pottawattomie Indians on Sugar Creek. In July, 1840, he went to the Peter Valley in the Rocky Mountains, where he met about 1,600 Flathead Indians. By the help of an interpreter he translated the Commandments, the Lord's Prayer, and the Creed into their language, and these within two weeks' time the Flatheads learned. During his journey back to St. Louis he was several times surrounded by the Blackfeet Indians, who, when they saw his crucifix and black gown, showed him the greatest respect. On Sept. 24, 1841, with a party of other missionaries, he reached Bitter Root River, where the mission of St. Mary's was begun. After spending about a year in learning the Blackfeet language and in endeavoring to make St. Mary's a permanent mission, he went to Europe to solicit aid. After arousing great enthusiasm in Belgium and France he sailed from Antwerp in December, 1843, with five Jesuits and six sisters,

and in August, 1844, arrived at Fort Vancouver, and planted a central mission on the Willamette River. Father De Smet wrote *The Oregon Missions and Travels Over the Rocky Mountains; Western Missions and Missionaries; New Indian Sketches*, etc. He died in St. Louis, Mo., in May, 1872.

Des Moines, capital of the State of Iowa. It is an important distributing point of general merchandise, and has manufactures exceeding $20,000,000 in annual value. The city was surveyed in 1846; incorporated as a town in 1853; chartered as a city and made the State capital in 1857; and adopted the "Des Moines" plan of commission government in 1908. Pop. (1900), 62,139; (1910), 86,368.

De Soto, FERNANDO, discoverer; born in Spain, about 1496. Davila, governor of Darien, was his patron, and took him to Central America, where he engaged in exploring the coast of the Pacific in search of a supposed strait connecting the two oceans. When Pizarro went to Peru, De Soto accompanied him and was the chief hero in the battle that resulted in the capture of Cuzco, the capital

FERNANDO DE SOTO.

of the Incas, and the destruction of their empire. Soon after that event he returned to Spain with large wealth, and was received by King Charles V. with great consideration. He married Isabella Bobadilla, a scion of one of the most renowned of the Castilian families, and his influence at Court was thereby strengthened. Longing to rival Cortez and Pizarro in the brilliancy of his deeds, and believing Florida to be richer in the precious metals than Mexico or Peru, De Soto offered to conquer it at his own expense. Permission was readily given him by his King, who commissioned him governor of Cuba, from which island he would set out on his conquering expedition. Elegant in deportment, winning in all his ways, an expert horseman, rich and influential, and then thirty-seven years of age, hundreds of young men, the flower of the Spanish and Portuguese nobility, flocked to his standard, the wealthier ones dressed in suits of gorgeous armor and followed by trains of servants. With these and his beautiful young wife and other noble ladies De Soto sailed from Spain early in April, 1538, with seven large and three small vessels, the *San Christoval*, of 800 tons, being his flag-ship.

Amply supplied and full of joy in the anticipation of entering an earthly paradise, gayety and feasting, music and dancing prevailed on board the flag-ship during that sunny voyage, in which richly dressed ladies, with handsome pages to do their bidding, were conspicuous, especially on warm moonlit nights within the tropic of Cancer. At near the close of May the fleet entered Cuban waters. De Soto occupied a whole year preparing for the expedition, and at the middle of May, 1539, he sailed from Cuba with nine vessels, bearing 1,000 followers, and cattle, horses, mules, and swine, the first of the latter seen on the American continent. He left public affairs in Cuba in the hands of his wife and the lieutenant-governor. The voyage to Florida was pleasant, and the armament landed on the shores of Tampa Bay on May 25, near where Narvaez had first anchored. Instead of treating the natives kindly and winning their friendship, De Soto unwisely sent armed men to capture some of them, in order to learn something about the country he was to conquer. The savages, cruelly treated by Narvaez, and fearing the same usage by De Soto, were cautious. They were also wily, expert with the bow, revengeful, and fiercely hostile. With cavaliers clad in

DE SOTO DISCOVERING THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

steel and riding 113 horses, with many footmen armed with arquebuses, cross-bows, swords, shields, and lances, and a single cannon, and supplied with savage bloodhounds from Cuba, and handcuffs, iron neck-collars, and chains for the captives, De Soto began his march in June, 1539. He was accompanied by mechanics, priests, inferior clergy, and monks in sacerdotal robes bearing images of the Virgin, holy relics, and sacramental bread and wine, wherewith to make Christians of the captured pagans.

At the very outset the expedition met with determined opposition from the dusky inhabitants, but De Soto pressed forward towards the interior of the fancied land of gold. He wintered east of the Flint River, near Tallahassee, on the borders of Georgia, and in March, 1540, broke up his encampment and marched northward, having been told that gold would be found in that direction. He reached the Savannah River, at Silver Bluff. On the opposite side of the stream, in (present) Barnwell county, lived an Indian queen, young, beautiful, and a maiden, who ruled over a large extent of country. In a richly wrought canoe, filled with shawls and skins and other things for presents, the dusky *cacica* glided across the river, and with kind words welcomed the Spaniards and offered them her services. Presents were exchanged. A magnificent string of pearls was hung upon her neck. This she drew over her head and hung it around the neck of De Soto as a token of her regard. Then she invited him and his followers to cross over to her village. In canoes and on log-rafts they passed the stream, and, encamping in the shadows of mulberry-trees, they soon received a bountiful supply of venison and wild turkeys. There they enjoyed the young queen's hospitality until May, and when they departed De Soto requited the kindness of the royal maiden with foul treachery. He carried her away a prisoner, and kept her near his person as a hostage for the good behavior of her people towards the Spaniards. She finally escaped, and returned home a bitter enemy of the perfidious white people.

De Soto crossed the beautiful country of the Cherokees (see CHEROKEE INDIANS), and penetrated the fertile Coosa region, where the Spaniards practised the most cruel treachery towards the friendly natives. De Soto was rewarded in kind not long afterwards, and in a terrible battle with the Mobilians, on the site of Mobile, the expedition was nearly ruined. Turning northward with the remnant of his forces, he fought his way through the Chickasaw country (see CHICKASAW INDIANS), and reached the upper waters of the Yazoo River late in December, where he wintered, in great distress. Moving westward in the spring, he discovered the Mississippi River, in all its grandeur, in May, 1541. It was near the Lower Chicasaw Bluff, in Tunica county, Miss. Crossing the mighty stream, De Soto went west-

ward in his yet fruitless search for gold, and spent a year in the country towards the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains. Returning to the Mississippi in May, 1542, he died of a fever on its banks on the 21st.

As he had declared to the Indians, who were sun-worshippers, that he was a son of the sun, and that Christians could not die, it was thought wise to conceal his death from the pagans. He was secretly buried in the gateway of the Spanish camp. The Indians knew he was sick. He was not to be seen, and they saw a new-made grave. They looked upon it and pondered. Moscoso ordered the body to be taken up at the dead of night. He was wrapped in mantles in which sand had been sewed up, taken in a boat to the middle of the great river, and there dropped to the bottom in 19 fathoms of water. Herrera says it was sunk in a hollow live-oak log. When the Indian chief asked Moscoso for De Soto, that leader replied, "He has ascended to heaven, but will return soon."

Before his death De Soto had conferred the leadership of the expedition upon Moscoso, his lieutenant, who, with the wretched remnant of the expedition, made their way to Mexico, where the elegant Castilian ladies at the court of the viceroy were enraptured by the beauty of the dusky Mobilian girls. The news of De Soto's death cast a gloom over Havana, and poor Doña Isabella, wife of the great leader, who had so long waited for his return, died of a broken heart.

Despard, JOHN, military officer; born in 1745; joined the British army in 1760; came to America in 1773; was present at the capture of Fort Montgomery and of Charleston; and was with Cornwallis in the campaign which culminated in the surrender at Yorktown. He was promoted colonel in 1795, and major-general in 1798. He died in Oswestry, England, Sept. 3, 1829.

D'Estaing, COUNT. See ESTAING, CHARLES HECTOR, COUNT D'.

Destroying Angels. See DANITES.

De Trobriand, PHILIPPE RÉGIS, military officer; born in Château des Rochettes, France, June 4, 1816; came to the United States in 1841; joined the National army as colonel of the 55th New York Regiment in August, 1861; took part in the engagements at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, etc.; was present

THE BURIAL OF DE SOTO.

wandered another year in the region west of the Mississippi; and returning to that river in May, 1543, they built rude vessels, and, with a number of beautiful Alabama girls whom they had carried away captive after the battle at Maubila, they

at Lee's surrender; brevetted major-general of volunteers in 1865. He was made brigadier-general in the regular army in 1867; retired in 1879. He published *Quatre ans de campagnes à l'armée du Potomac.* He died in Bayport, July 7, 1897.

Detroit, a city, port of entry, metropolis of Michigan, and county-seat of Wayne county; on the Detroit River, 7 miles from Lake St. Clair, and about 18 miles from Lake Erie. It is noted for the variety and extent of its manufactures and for its large traffic on the Great Lakes. For the defence of the harbor and city the federal government has constructed Fort Wayne, a short distance below the city, designed to be the strongest American fortification on the northern frontier. The value of the foreign trade of the city in merchandise during the calendar year 1910, was: Imports, $8,042,901; exports, $41,178,267, both a considerable increase over the returns of the previous year. The principal shipments are grains, meat, wool, iron, and copper ores, and lumber. Foreign commerce and interstate trade are facilitated by an excellent harbor, extensive dry-docks, and important steamboat and railroad connections. According to the Census Bureau's summary for 1909, the city had 2,036 manufacturing plants in the factory-system classification, employing $190,125,000 capital, and 81,011 wage-earners; paying $58,267,000 for salaries and wages and $130,218,000 for materials used; and having a combined output valued at $252,992,000. The principal manufactures were, in the order of value of output: Druggists' preparations; foundry and machine-shop products; stoves and furnaces; automobiles; tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes; malt liquors; varnishes; and flour and grist-mill products. In 1910 the assessed property valuations were: Real estate, $259,798,330; personal, $117,537,650—total, $377,335,980; and the tax rate was $18.38 per $1,000. The city owned property free from all encumbrance estimated at $34,769,177. The total net debt (in-

LANDING OF CADILLAC.

cluding a water debt of $1,180,000) was $7,785,574. A tunnel under the Detroit River, built by the Michigan Central Railroad Company and connecting Detroit with Windsor, Ontario, was completed in 1910 at a cost of about $15,000,000. Pop. (1890), 205,876; (1900), 285,704; (1910), 465,766.

History.—Detroit was first settled by CADILLAC (*q. v.*), July 24, 1701, with fifty soldiers and fifty artisans and traders. Three years later the first white child, a daughter of Cadillac, was baptized in the place, which was called by the French "La Ville d'Etroit." The French surrendered Detroit to the English, under Maj. Robert Rodgers, Nov. 29, 1760.

The tragedy of Pontiac's War opened in Detroit. Under pretext of holding a friendly council with Major Gladwin, commander of the fort, the wily chief entered it in May, 1763, with about 300 warriors, each carrying a knife, tomahawk, and short gun under his blanket. When Pontiac should rise and present the green side of a belt, the massacre of the garrison was to begin. Gladwin was warned of the plot the day before by a friendly Indian, and the calamity was averted by the appointment of another day for the council. When the Indians retired, the gates of the fort were closed upon them, and, knowing the reason, Pontiac began a siege that lasted a year.

General Amherst hastily collected a small body in the East for the relief of Detroit and reinforcement of Fort Niagara, and sent them under the command of Captain Dalzell, one of his aides. Dalzell left reinforcements at Niagara, and proceeded to Detroit with the remainder of his troops and provisions in a vessel that arrived on the evening of July 30. They succeeded in entering the fort with provisions. Pontiac had already summoned Gladwin to surrender; now Dalzell proposed to make a sortie and attack the besieging Indians. Gladwin thought it would be imprudent, but Dalzell persisted, and before daylight on the morning of July 31 he sallied out with 240 chosen men to attack the Indians, who lay about a mile up the river. Pontiac was on the alert, and, at a small stream on the northern verge of Detroit, the English, furiously assailed by the Indians, were forced to make a precipitate retreat in the darkness, leaving twenty of their comrades killed and forty-two wounded on the border of the brook, which has ever since been called Bloody Run. Dalzell was slain while trying to carry off some of the wounded, and his scalp became an Indian's trophy. Pontiac continued the siege of Detroit until the arrival of Colonel Bradstreet in May, 1764.

In January, 1774, the British Parliament included Detroit and its dependent territory with Canada, and the first civil government was instituted June 22, 1774, with GENERAL HENRY HAMILTON (*q. v.*) as governor. Governor Hamilton, a human tiger, delighting in blood, instigated the Indians to murder the defenceless settlers on the border. He organized an expedition in 1779 to capture Vincennes, but GENERAL GEORGE ROGERS CLARK (*q. v.*) attacked him on the way on March 5, and forced him to an unconditional surrender. Hamilton was sent to Virginia, put into irons by Thomas Jefferson, and escaped hanging only through the intercession of Washington, but was finally paroled. The British troops were allowed to return to Detroit.

In 1782 Detroit had a permanent population of 2,190, of whom 178 were slaves, but the withdrawal of the British garrison and the exodus of the English settlers to found Amherstburg reduced the inhabitants to about 500, most of whom were of French descent. During the forty-five years after the close of the war Detroit grew slowly, in 1828 having a population of 1,517 only. The opening of the Erie Canal in 1825 sent a tide of emigration westward, and Detroit began its marvellous growth. Beginning with 2,222 inhabitants in 1830, it has on an average doubled each decade.

The city was the scene of disastrous operations in the early part of the War of 1812–15. In August, 1812, General Brock, governor of Upper Canada, with a few regulars and 300 militia, hastened to Amherstburg, arriving there on the night of Aug. 13, and on the following morning held a conference with Tecumseh and 1,000 Indians, telling them he had come to assist in driving the Americans from their rightful hunting-grounds north of the Ohio. The Indians were pleased, and, at

a subsequent interview with Tecumseh and the other chiefs, they assured him that the Indians would give him all their strength in the undertaking. Then Brock marched from Malden to Sandwich, which the Americans had deserted, and a battery was planted opposite Detroit, which commanded the fort there. The American artillerists begged permission to open fire upon it, and Captain Snelling asked the privilege of going over in the night to capture the British works. Hull would not allow any demonstrations against the enemy, and the latter prepared for assault without any molestation. Hull was much deceived by letters intended to be intercepted, showing preparations for large and immediate reinforcements to Brock's army; and he had also been deceived into the belief that a large portion of the followers of the latter, who were only militia, were regulars. The militia had been dressed in scarlet uniforms, and were paraded so as to show treble their real number. Hull was hemmed in on every side; his provisions were scarce, and he saw no chance of receiving any from Ohio. He knew that if the Indians were exasperated and the fort should be taken there would be a general massacre of the garrison and the inhabitants, and his kindness of heart and growing caution, incident to old age, made him really timid and fearful. When Brock's preparations for attack were completed (on the 15th), he sent a summons to Hull for an unconditional surrender of the post. In that demand was a covert threat of letting loose the bloodthirsty Indians in case of resistance. Hull's whole effective force at that time did not exceed 1,000 men. The fort was thronged with trembling women and children and decrepit old men of the village and surrounding country, who had fled to it for protection from the Indians. He kept the flag that bore the summons waiting fully two hours, for his innate bravery and patriotism bade him refuse and fight, while his fear of dreadful consequences to his army and the people bade him surrender. His troops were confident in their ability to successfully confront the enemy, and he finally refused compliance with the demand. Active preparations were then made for de-

A BUSINESS STREET IN DETROIT IN 1899.

PONTIAC'S ATTACK ON FORT DETROIT

fence. The British opened a cannonade and bombardment from their battery, which was kept up until near midnight. The firing was returned with spirit; but Hull would listen to no suggestion for the erection of a battery at Spring Wells to oppose the enemy if they should attempt to cross the river. Early on the morning of the 16th they crossed and landed unmolested; and as they moved towards the fort, in single column, Tecumseh and his Indians, 700 strong, who had crossed 2 miles below during the night, took position in the woods on their left as flankers, while the right was protected by the guns of the *Queen Charlotte*, in the river. They had approached to a point within 500 yards of the American line, when Hull sent a peremptory order for the soldiers to retreat within the already overcrowded fort. The infuriated soldiers reluctantly obeyed; and while the enemy were preparing to storm the fort, Hull, without consulting any of his officers, hoisted a white flag, and a capitulation for a surrender was soon agreed upon. The surrender took place at noon, Aug. 16, 1812. The fort, garrison, army, and the Territory of Michigan were included in the terms of surrender. The spoils of victory for the British were 2,500 stand of arms, twenty-five iron and eight brass pieces of ordnance, forty barrels of gunpowder, a stand of colors, a great quantity of military stores, and the armed brig *John Adams*. One of the brass cannon bore the following inscription: "Taken at Saratoga on the 17th of October, 1777." General Hull and his fellow-captives were sent first to Fort George and then to Montreal, where they arrived Sept. 6, when they were paroled, and returned to their homes. Hull was tried for treason and cowardice, and sentenced to be shot, but was pardoned by the President. His character has since been fully vindicated. See HULL, WILLIAM.

Detroit, FORT. The old French village of Detroit contained 160 houses in 1812, and about 800 souls. It stretched along the river at a convenient distance from the water, and the present Jefferson Avenue was the principal street. On the high ground in the rear, about 250 yards from the river, stood Fort Detroit, built by the English after the conquest of Canada, in 1760. It was quadrangular in form, with bastions and barracks, and covered about two acres of ground. The embankments were nearly 20 feet high, with a deep ditch, and were surrounded with a double row of pickets. The fort did not command the river. The town, also, was surrounded by pickets 14 feet in height, with loop-holes to shoot through.

De Vaca. See CABEZA DE VACA.

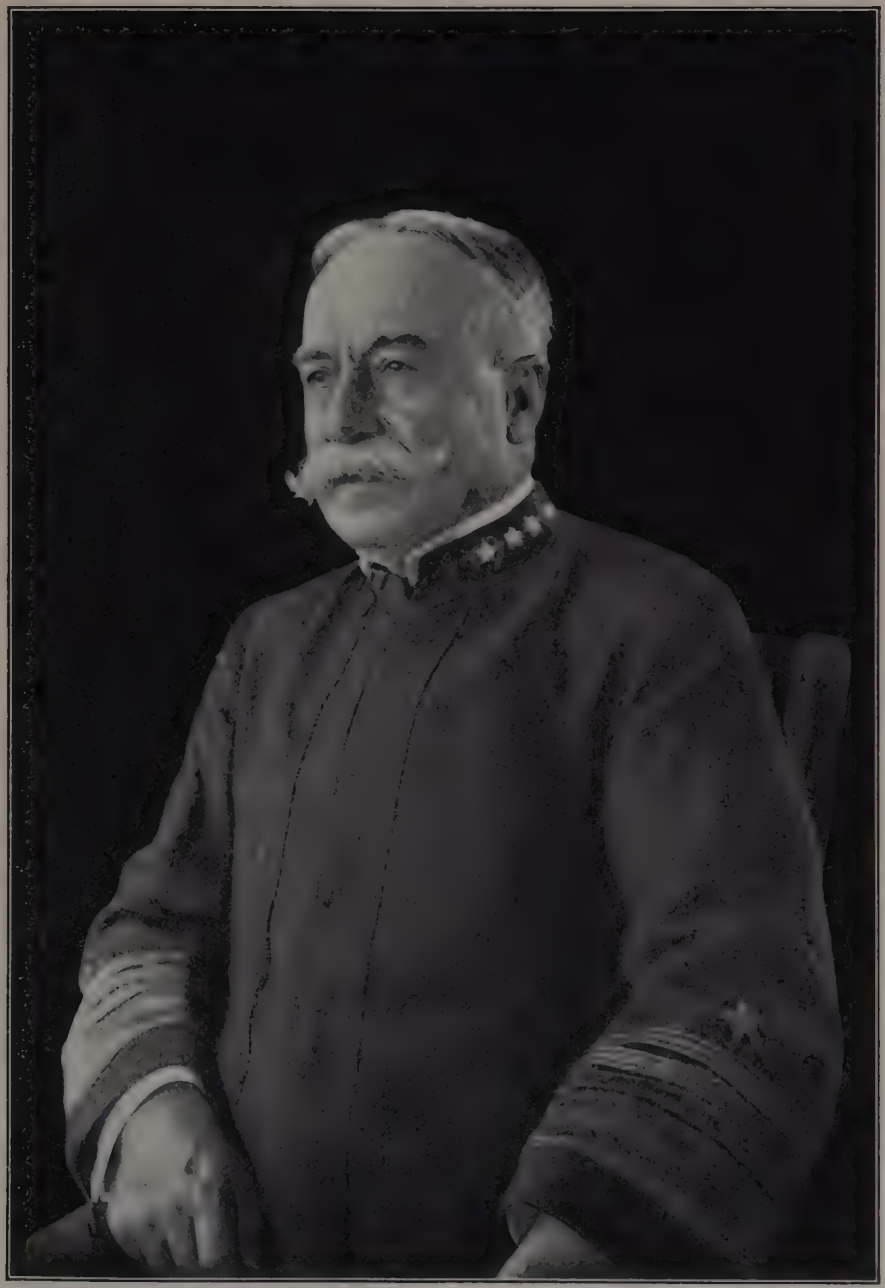
Devens, CHARLES, jurist; born in Charlestown, Mass., April 4, 1820; graduated at Harvard University in 1838; studied at the Cambridge Law School, and practised the profession of law several years. In 1848 he was a State Senator, and from 1849 to 1853 was United States marshal for Massachusetts. He was engaged in his profession at Worcester, Mass., when the Civil War began, and was one of the earliest Union volunteers, becoming major of a rifle battalion April 16, 1861, and colonel of the 15th Massachusetts Regiment in July following. Before the arrival of Colonel Baker, he commanded at BALL'S BLUFF (*q. v.*), and again after that officer's death. In April, 1862, he was made brigadier-general; served on the Peninsula; was wounded at Fair Oaks; was in the battles of South Mountain and Antietam; and commanded a division in the 11th Army Corps at Chancellorsville. In the Richmond campaign of 1864–65 he was continually engaged, and in December, 1864, he was in temporary command of the 24th Army Corps. In April, 1865, he was brevetted major-general of volunteers, and in 1867 was appointed a justice of the Superior Court of Massachusetts. He was United States Attorney-General in 1877–81, and justice of the Massachusetts Supreme Court from 1881 till his death, in Boston, Jan. 7, 1891.

De Vries, DAVID PIETERSSEN, colonist. In December, 1630, he sent out a number of emigrants from Holland who established a settlement called Swanendal, near the mouth of the Delaware River, where they began the cultivation of grain and tobacco. Two years later when De Vries arrived at the head of a second party he found that all the first settlers had been massacred by the Indians. In April, 1634, he concluded that his enterprise was un-

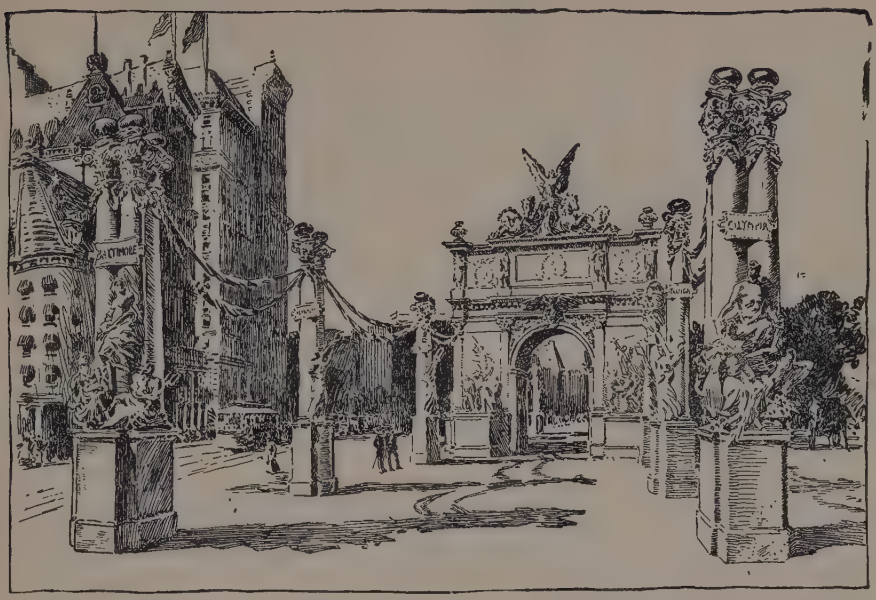
successful, and the expedition returned to Holland. He is the author of *Voyages from Holland to America, from 1632 till 1644.*

Dewey, GEORGE, naval officer; born in Montpelier, Vt., Dec. 26, 1837; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1858; and served on the frigate *Wabash* in the Mediterranean squadron until the beginning of the Civil War, when he was assigned to the steam sloop *Mississippi* of the West Gulf squadron. On April 19, 1861, he was commissioned lieutenant, and was with Admiral Farragut when the latter's squadron forced the passage of forts St. Philip and Jackson in April, 1862. He also took part in the attack on Fort St. Philip and the subsequent battles with gunboats and ironclads which gave Farragut control of New Orleans. In the smoke of the battle the *Mississippi* ran aground within range of the shore batteries. When it was seen that the ship could not be saved, the officers and men set her afire and escaped in the boats. Later, Dewey served in the North Atlantic blockading squadron, and still later with the European squadron. In 1872 he was promoted to commander; in 1884 to captain; and in 1896 to commodore. He was appointed to command the Asiatic squadron in January, 1898, an assignment then considered but little short of exile. About March of the same year, when it became evident that war would be declared between the United States and Spain, Commodore Dewey, acting on orders from Washington, began to mobilize his vessels in the harbor of Hong-Kong. After the declaration of war he received orders to capture or destroy the Spanish fleet known to be in Philippine waters. It was then supposed that the harbor of Manila, where the Spanish fleet was most likely to rendezvous, was mined with explosives and supplied with search-lights, and that the forts of CAVITÉ (*q. v.*) had been put in readiness for an attack. Taking all chances, the United States squadron sailed boldly into the bay on the night of April 30. Dewey's squadron comprised the flagship *Olympia*, a first-rate steel-protected cruiser; the *Boston*, the *Baltimore*, and the *Raleigh*, second-rate steel-protected cruisers; the *Concord* and *Petrel*, steel gunboats; the *McCulloch*, revenue-cutter; and two new

BIRTHPLACE OF ADMIRAL DEWEY.



ADMIRAL GEORGE DEWEY



TRIUMPHAL ARCH ERECTED IN NEW YORK CITY TO CELEBRATE DEWEY'S RETURN.

ly purchased supply ships. The Spanish squadron consisted of the *Reina Christina*, steel cruiser; the *Castilia*, wooden cruiser; the *Don Antonio de Ulloa*, iron cruiser; the *Don Juan de Austria*, iron cruiser; the *Isla de Cuba*, steel protected cruiser; the *Isla de Luzon*, steel protected cruiser; the *Isla de Mindanao*, auxiliary cruiser; the gunboats *General Lezo*, *El Cano*, and *Marques del Duero*, and two torpedo-boats. Early on Sunday morning, May 1, Dewey attacked the Spanish squadron, under command of Admiral Montojo. Two engagements were fought; during the interval between them the American ships drew off to the east side of the bay, that the men might rest and have breakfast. The fight lasted two hours, and resulted in the destruction of the Spanish squadron, by fire and sinking, without the loss of an American ship or man. Immediately after the receipt of Dewey's brief message of victory, the President promoted him to rear-admiral, and Congress voted him the thanks of the country and a sword. Subsequently, the grade of admiral was revived, and the President conferred it on him. Holding the bay of Manila and the Cavité works, he had the chief city of the Philippines at his mercy, but made no attempt to occupy that city. There ensued a period of masterful diplomacy, which won for the victor high commendation. Between the imminent dangers of foreign complications and the operations of the native insurgents under AGUINALDO (*q. v.*), he acquitted himself with rare judgment. After the occupation of MANILA (*q. v.*) by the American troops, he was granted leave to return home, and, sailing in his battle-scarred flag-ship, he reached New York on Sept. 26, 1899, and was given the grandest reception ever accorded a public officer, the demonstrations comprising a naval parade up the river to General Grant's tomb, on the 29th, and a land parade on the following day. Subsequently he established his residence in Washington, D. C., and from 1899 was president of the General Board of the Navy.

Dewey, MELVIL, librarian; born in Adams Centre, N. Y., Dec. 10, 1851; graduated at Amherst in 1874; edited the *Library Journal* in 1876–81; was director of the New York State Library in 1888–1906, and of its school in 1887–1906; and State director of libraries in 1904–06;

author of *Decimal Classification and Relative Index; Library School Rules*, etc.

Dewey Floating Dry-dock. See DOCKS.

De Witt, SIMEON, surveyor; born in Ulster county, N. Y., Dec. 26, 1756; graduated at Queen's (now Rutgers) College in 1776; joined the army under Gates; and was made assistant geographer to the army in 1778, and chief geographer in 1780. He was surveyor-general of New York fifty years (1784–1834). In 1796 he declined the appointment of surveyor-general of the United States. He was regent, vice-chancellor, and chancellor of the State of New York, member of many learned societies, and author of *Elements of Perspective* (1835). He died in Ithaca, N. Y., Dec. 3, 1834.

Dexter, HENRY MARTYN, clergyman; born in Plympton, Mass., Aug. 13, 1821; graduated at Yale in 1840; became pastor of the Congregational Church in Manchester in 1844; removed to Boston as pastor of the Berkeley Street Church in 1849. He was the author of *Congregationalism of the Last 300 Years; As to Roger Williams and his Banishment from the Massachusetts Colony; What Ought to be Done with the Freedmen and the Rebels; The Church Polity of the Pilgrims; Early English Exiles in Amsterdam; History of Old Plymouth Colony;* and the editor of *Church's Eastern Expeditions; Entertaining Passages Relating to Philip's War.* He died in New Bedford, Mass., Nov. 13, 1890.

Dexter, SAMUEL, jurist; born in Boston, May 14, 1761; graduated at Harvard in 1781; studied law at Worcester, and became a State legislator, in which place he was distinguished for intellectual ability and oratory. President Adams appointed him, successively, Secretary of War (1800) and of the Treasury (1801), and for a while he had charge of the State Department. On the accession of Jefferson (1801) he resumed the practice of law. He declined foreign embassies offered by Adams and Madison. Mr. Dexter was a Federalist until the War of 1812, when, being in favor of that measure, he separated himself from his party. He was the first president of the first temperance society formed in Massachusetts. He died in Athens, N. Y., May 4, 1816.

Dexter, TIMOTHY, merchant; born in Malden, Mass., Jan. 22, 1743. Inordinate vanity and extraordinary shrewdness were combined in him with almost imbecility in all matters excepting those of trade. It is of him that the story is told that he sent a lot of warming-pans to the West Indies, which he disposed of at a large profit to the sugar manufacturers for use as skimmers. He died in Newburyport, Mass., Oct. 26, 1806.

De Zeng, FREDERICK AUGUSTUS, BARON, military officer; born in Dresden, Saxony, in 1756; came to America in 1780 as captain in one of the Hessian regiments; and at the end of the Revolutionary War married an American lady and settled in Red Hook, N. Y. He was naturalized in 1789, and became intimate with Chancellor Livingston, Governor Clinton, General Schuyler, and others, and was greatly interested in the opening of canals and in the navigation of the interior waters and lakes. He died in Clyde, N. Y., April 26, 1838.

Diamond, FORT, original name of FORT LAFAYETTE (*q. v.*), New York Harbor; name changed in 1823.

Diamond State. A name applied to the State of Delaware because of its small size, its wealth, and its importance.

Diaz del Castillo, BERNAL, military officer; born in Médina del Campo, Spain, about 1498; came to America as an adventurer in 1514, joining the expedition of Cordova in 1517, and of Grijalva in 1518. He served Cortez faithfully and valiantly. During his adventurous career he was engaged in 119 battles and skirmishes, and was wounded several times. He wrote a history of the conquest of New Spain, which he completed in 1568, intended to correct the misstatements of Gomara's *Chronicle of New Spain*, in which nearly all the glory of its conquest was given to Cortez. Diaz was a rough, unlettered soldier, and his history has been pronounced a "collection of fables." He died in Guatemala, about 1593.

Diaz, PORFIRIO, Mexican statesman; born in Oaxaca, Sept. 15, 1830; served through the war with the United States in the National Guard, and on the conclusion of peace made a study of military science. On Santa Ana's accession to the dictatorship, he left the army; but re-

turned and bore a conspicuous part in the revolution of 1854; took the field to oppose the French troops and was taken prisoner, but made his escape; harassed Maximilian's troops till forced to surrender a second time at Oaxaca in 1865; besieged and captured Puebla in 1867, and immediately marched on Mexico City, which surrendered to him June 21. On the re-establishment of the republic he was an unsuccessful candidate for president. In 1872 and 1876 he led revolutions against the government, and after three severe battles occupied the capital in the latter year. In 1877 he was elected president to fill the unexpired term of the fugitive president, Lerdo. According to the "plan of Tuxtepec," which he had proclaimed, he was ineligible to succeed himself. His secretary, General Gonzales, was elected president, and General Diaz was appointed chief-justice of the supreme court, and elected governor of Oaxaca. In 1884 he was re-elected president; in 1886 his partisans secured the abolition of the law prohibiting a second consecutive presidential term, and he was thereafter continuously re-elected, the eighth time on June 26, 1910. As a result of the revolution in 1911, he resigned his office and made his home in Spain.

Di Cesnola. See CESNOLA, LUIGI PALMA.

Dickens, JOHN, clergyman; born in London, Aug. 24, 1747; emigrated to America, 1770; licensed to preach by the Methodist Church, 1777. His appointment as "Book Steward" in Philadelphia, 1790, was the beginning of the Methodist Book Concern, afterwards removed to New York City. He edited and published the *Armenian Magazine* and the *Methodist Magazine.* He died in Philadelphia, Sept. 27, 1798.

Dickerson, MAHLON, statesman; born in Hanover, N. J., April 17, 1770; graduated at Princeton in 1789; practised law in Philadelphia, where he became recorder of the city court. He returned to New Jersey, was elected a member of the State legislature in 1814, governor of the State in 1815, and United States Senator in 1816. He was Secretary of the Navy under Presidents Jackson and Van Buren. He died in Succasunna, N. J., Oct. 5, 1853.

Dickinson, ANNA ELIZABETH, reformer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 28, 1842; made her first appearance among public speakers in 1857, and spoke frequently on temperance and slavery. During the Civil War she was employed by the Republican National Committee to make addresses, and after its conclusion she lectured on reconstruction, woman's work and wages, and woman's suffrage. She wrote the plays *The Crown of Thorns* and *Mary Tudor,* and for several years from 1867 she appeared on the dramatic stage.

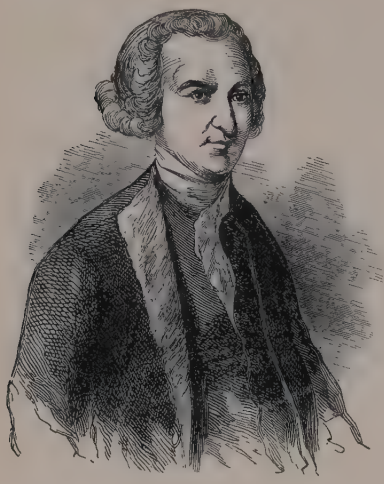
Dickinson, CHARLES WESLEY, inventor; born in Springfield, N. J., Nov. 23, 1823; became a machinist, and gave his attention to fine machinery. He perfected the bank-note engraving lathe, first used by the national government in 1862; and invented a pantograph tracer, improved type-setting and type-distributing machines, etc. He died in Belleville, N. J., July 2, 1900.

Dickinson, DONALD MCDONALD, lawyer; born in Port Ontario, N. Y., Jan. 17, 1846; graduated at the Law Department of the University of Michigan in 1866; began practice in Detroit: member of the Democratic National Committee in 1884–85; Postmaster-General of the United States in 1888–89; senior counsel for the United States before the Bering Sea Claims Commission in 1896–07; member of Court of Arbitration to settle controversy between the United States and Salvador in 1902.

Dickinson, JACOB MCGAVOCK, lawyer; born in Columbus, Miss., Jan. 30, 1851; was admitted to the bar in 1874; practiced in Nashville, Tenn., in 1874–99, and in Chicago in 1899–1909; served several times on the bench of the Tennessee Supreme Court; was United States assistant attorney-general in 1895–97; United States counsel before the Alaska Boundary Tribunal in 1903, and general counsel of the Illinois Central Railroad Co. in 1901–09; was Secretary of War in 1909–11; then became professor of federal jurisdiction and procedure in Vanderbilt University.

Dickinson, JOHN, publicist; born in Maryland, Nov. 13, 1732; son of Chief-Justice Samuel D. Dickinson; studied law in Philadelphia and at the Temple in Lon-

don, and practised his profession in Philadelphia. In the Pennsylvania Assembly, to which he was elected in 1764, he showed great legislative ability, and was a ready and vehement debater. At the same time, he wrote much on the subject of British



JOHN DICKINSON.

infringement on the liberties of the colonies. The most noted of these writings were papers (twelve in number) entitled *Letters from a Pennsylvania Farmer*, etc., published in the *Pennsylvania Chronicle* in 1767. In these letters he endeavored "to convince the people of these colonies, that they are, at this moment, exposed to the most imminent dangers; and to persuade them, immediately, vigorously, and unanimously, to exert themselves, in the most firm but most peaceable manner, for obtaining relief. Liberty's cause is of too much dignity, to be sullied by turbulence and tumult. It ought to be maintained in a manner suitable to her nature. Those who engage in it should breathe a sedate yet fervent spirit, animating them to actions of prudence, justice, modesty, bravery, humanity, and magnanimity." He repudiated the thought of independence. "Let us behave like dutiful children who have received unmerited blows from a beloved parent; but let these truths be indelibly impressed on our minds: that we cannot be happy, without being free; that we cannot be free without being secure in our property; that we cannot be secure in our property if, without our consent, others may, as by right, take it away; that taxes imposed on us by Parliament do thus take it away. Great Britain claims and exercises the right to prohibit manufactures in America. Once admit that she may lay duties upon her exportations to us, for the purpose of levying money on us only, she then will have nothing to do but to lay those duties on the articles which she prohibits us to manufacture, and the tragedy of American liberty is finished."

Mr. Dickinson was a member of the first Continental Congress, and wrote several of the state papers put forth by that body. Considering the resolution of independence unwise, he voted against it and the Declaration, and did not sign the latter document. This made him unpopular. In 1777 he was made a brigadier-general of the Pennsylvania militia. He was elected a representative in Congress from Delaware in 1779, and wrote the *Address to the States* put forth by that body in May of that year. He was successively president of the States of Delaware and Pennsylvania (1781–85), and a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution (1787). Letters from his pen, over the signature of "Fabius," advocating the adoption of the national Constitution, appeared in 1788; and another series, over the same signature, on our relations with France, appeared in 1797. Mr. Dickinson assisted in framing the constitution of Delaware in 1792. He died in Wilmington, Del., Feb. 14, 1808.

Dickinson, PHILEMON, military officer; born in Croisedore, Md., April 5, 1739; settled near Trenton, N. J. In July, 1775, he entered the patriot army; in October of the same year was promoted brigadier-general; in 1776 was a delegate to the provincial congress of New Jersey; in 1777 was promoted major-general of the New Jersey troops; in October of that year marched against the British on Staten Island, for which he received the thanks of Washington; and served with marked distinction during the remainder of the Revolutionary War. In 1784 he served on the commission to choose a site for the city of Washington. He died near Trenton, N. J., Feb. 4, 1809.

Dickinson College, a co-educational institution in Carlisle, Pa.; under the control of the Methodist Episcopal Church; organized in 1783; reported at the end of 1910, thirty-three professors and instructors, 400 students, 43,250 volumes in the library, 5,358 graduates, and $375,000 in productive funds; president, George E. Reed, S.T.D., LL.D.

Dickson, JOHN, statesman; born in Keene, N. H., in 1783; graduated at Middlebury College in 1808; practised law in Rochester, N. Y., in 1813–25; member of Congress in 1831–35. He is credited with having delivered "the first important anti-slavery speech ever made in Congress." He published *Remarks on the Presentation of Several Petitions for the Abolition of Slavery and the Slave-trade in the District of Columbia.* He died in West Bloomfield, N. Y., Feb. 22, 1852.

Dieskau, LUDWIG AUGUST, BARON, military officer; born in Saxony in 1701; was lieutenant-colonel of cavalry under Marshal Saxe, and was made brigadier-general of infantry in 1748, and commander of Brest. In 1755 he was sent to Canada with the rank of major-general; and in an attack upon the fortified encampment of Gen. William Johnson at the head of Lake George (Sept. 8, 1755) he was so severely wounded that he died in Surenne, near Paris, Sept. 8, 1757.

Digges, EDWARD, colonial governor; born in England in 1620; came to America and introduced the silk-worm into Virginia; became governor of that colony in 1655. He resigned and bore a letter from the Virginia Assembly to Cromwell. He died in Virginia, March 15, 1675.

Dighton Rock. See VINLAND.

Dimick, JUSTIN, military officer; born in Hartford county, Conn., Aug. 5, 1800; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1819; served in the war with Mexico, and greatly distinguished himself at Contreras and Churubusco. In 1861–63 he commanded the depot of prisoners at Fort Warren, Mass. He was retired in 1863; received the brevet of brigadier-general, U. S. A., in 1865. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 13, 1871.

Dingley, NELSON, legislator; born in Durham, Me., Feb. 15, 1832; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1855; studied law in Auburn and was admitted to the bar there in 1856; and in the last mentioned year became editor and proprietor of the Lewiston *Journal,* a connection he retained till his death. From 1861 till 1873 he was a member of the State legislature, and in 1873 and 1875 was elected governor of Maine. In 1881 he was elected to Congress to fill the vacancy caused by the election of William P. Frye to the United States Senate, and by re-elections held the seat till his death.

NELSON DINGLEY.

From the opening of his congressional career he was conspicuous as an advocate of high tariff. In 1890 he aided in the formulation of the McKinley tariff bill; in 1894 was a strong opponent of the Wilson bill; and in 1897, as chairman of the committee on ways and means, he brought forward the tariff bill which was adopted under his name. President McKinley tendered him the post of Secretary of the Treasury, but he declined it. In 1898 he became a member of the Joint High Commission to negotiate a settlement of existing differences between the United States and Canada. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 13, 1899.

Dinwiddie, ROBERT, colonial governor; born in Scotland about 1690. While acting as clerk to a collector of customs in the West Indies he discovered and exposed enormous frauds practised by his principal, and was rewarded with the

office of surveyor of the customs, and afterwards with that of lieutenant-governor of Virginia. He arrived in the colony in 1752. He was rapacious, and unscrupulous in the accumulation of wealth. Owing to his exaction of enormous fees authorized by the board of trade for the issue of patents for lands, he gained the ill-will of the people of Virginia, and when he called for money to enable him to oppose the encroachments of the French, the House of Burgesses paid no attention to his expressed wishes. Dinwiddie, unmindful of this conduct, enlisted a captain's command, and sent them to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio (now Pittsburg), and called on neighboring colonies for aid in the work. He sent George Washington to the French commander on a mission of observation. Washington proved himself to be a zealous officer; and Dinwiddie, discovering his capacity, made him adjutant-general of a military district.

The revelations made to Washington at Fort Le Bœuf, the evident preparations of the French to make a concerted movement to secure the occupation of the Ohio region, and the tenor of St. Pierre's answer to Dinwiddie's letter, convinced the

latter of the necessity of quick and energetic countervailing measures. St. Pierre declared that he was acting under the instructions of his superior, the Marquis Duquesne, at Montreal, and refused to withdraw his troops from the disputed territory. Dinwiddie immediately prepared for an expedition against the French, and asked the other colonies to co-operate with Virginia. This was the first call for a general colonial union against the common enemy. All hesitated excepting North Carolina. The legislature of that province promptly voted 400 men, who were soon on the march for Winchester, the place of rendezvous; but they eventually proved of little worth, for, doubtful of being paid for their services, a great part of them were disbanded before they reached the Shenandoah Valley. Some volunteers from South Carolina and New York hastened to the gathering-place. Virginia responded to the call to arms by organizing a regiment of 600 men, of which Joshua Fry was appointed colonel and Major Washington lieutenant-colonel. The Virginians assembled at Alexandria, on the Potomac, whence Lieutenant-Colonel Washington, with the advance, marched (April 2, 1754) at their head for the Ohio. Meanwhile Captain Trent had recruited a company among the traders west of the mountains, and had begun the erection of a fort at the forks of the Ohio. They were attacked (April 18) by a party of French and Indians, who expelled Trent and his men, completed the fort, and named it Duquesne, in honor of the captain-general of Canada. News of this event reached Washington at Will's Creek (now Cumberland). He pushed forward with 150 men to a point on the Monongahela less than 40 miles from Fort Duquesne. There he was informed that a strong force of French and Indians was marching to intercept him. He wisely fell back to the Great Meadows, where he erected a stockade, and called it Fort Necessity. Before it was completed, a few of his troops attacked an advanced party of the enemy under Jumonville in the night, and the commander and several of his men were killed. Some of his captured men were sent to Governor Dinwiddie. Reinforced, Washington marched for Fort Duquesne again, but was driven back to Fort Necessity, which he was obliged to surrender on July 3. See NECESSITY, FORT.

Dinwiddie was the first to suggest to

the British board of trade the taxing of the colonies (1754) for funds to carry on the war with the French and Indians; and he was one of the five colonial governors who memorialized Parliament (1755) in favor of the measure. He had much clashing and vexation with the House of Burgesses; and worn out with trouble and age, he left Virginia under a cloud caused by a charge made by his enemies that he had appropriated to his own use £20,000 transmitted to him for compensation to the Virginians for money expended by them in the public service. He died in Clifton, England, Aug. 1, 1770.

Dinwiddie Court-house, Actions at. In March, 1865, the National force under General Sheridan crossed the Appomattox River from Bermuda Hundred, passed to the rear of the army before Petersburg, and early on the morning of the 29th marched down the Jerusalem plank-road, and turning westward pushed on by way of Reams's Station to Dinwiddie Court-house, where he halted for the night at 5 P.M. Sheridan expected to cut loose from the rest of the army on the 30th to make a raid on the South Side and Danville railroads, but General Grant suddenly changed his plans. General Lee, seeing that his only line of communication might be cut off at any hour, and feeling the necessity of maintaining his extended line of works covering Petersburg and Richmond, concentrated a force of about 15,000 men, and hastened to place them in front of the 5th and 2d Corps of the National army. He then sought to strike a heavy blow on the extreme west of Grant's lines, then held by Sheridan, which he supposed was a weak point. Sheridan captured the works at Five Forks, and so gained the key to the whole region that Lee was striving to protect. In the struggle to regain this point strong parts of both armies were soon facing each other at Dinwiddie Court-house. Here Sheridan won the day after a severe engagement, the Confederates being unable to make any rally, and the fighting ceased with darkness. During the night the Confederates retired.

Diocese, originally a division of departments or districts under the civil government of the Roman Empire, subsequently restricted to the territory under the supervision of a bishop. In the United States dioceses of the Protestant Episcopal Church bear the name of the State, part of the State, or Territory under the bishop's jurisdiction; in the Roman Catholic Church they take the name of the city containing the bishop's cathedral.

Diplomatic Service. Ambassadors, ministers, and other representatives accredited by one government to another, or by one sovereign to another. In the first grade (ambassadors) the United States is represented by ambassadors to and from Great Britain, Germany, France, Russia, Austria, Italy, Japan, and Mexico. To most of the other nations the United States sends envoys-extraordinary and ministers-plenipotentiary. The chief difference between ambassadors and other diplomatic agents is that by general custom ambassadors have the right of demanding audiences with the sovereigns or the heads of republics direct, whereas all other diplomatic agents transact their business through the Secretaries of State.

By Article II, Section 2, ¶ 2, of the United States Constitution, the President has power to nominate and, by and with the consent of the Senate, to appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls. By Article III, Section 2, ¶ 2, in all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, the U. S. Supreme Court of the United States has original jurisdiction.

By the statute of April 30, 1790, all writs or processes aimed at the persons or property of diplomatic agents, including their suites and households, are declared null and void under penalty.

The privileges of ambassadors and ministers are: (1) Inviolability of person from public authority or from private persons. (2) Exterritoriality, which exempts him from the criminal or the civil jurisdiction of the country to which he is accredited. (3) His house is a sanctuary, but he cannot shelter transgressors of the law. (4) His rights begin when he lands in the country to which he is sent, and continue until he leaves it, whether he is received or not. The government to which he is accredited may, however, demand his recall by the country which sent him, and refuse to hold any further diplomatic intercourse with him.

Directory, FRENCH, the name given to the government of the French Republic, established by a constitution in August, 1795, framed by the moderate republican party after the fall of Robespierre and the end of the Reign of Terror. The executive directory consisted of five persons, who promulgated the laws, appointed the ministers, and had the management of military and naval affairs. They decided questions by a majority vote, and presided, by turns, three months each, the presiding member having the signature and the seal. During their terms of office none of them could have a personal command, or absent himself for more than five days from the place where the council held its sessions without its permission. The legislative power, under the constitution, was vested in two assemblies, the Council of Five Hundred and the Council of the Ancients, the former having the exclusive right of preparing laws for the consideration of the latter. The judicial authority was committed to elective judges. The first directors chosen (Nov. 1, 1795) were MM. Barras, Revellière-Lepeaux, Rewbell, Letourneur, and Carnot. The latter organized the armies with great skill.

Direct Election of Senators. For several years there has been a strong sentiment in the United States in favor of taking away from State legislatures the right to elect United States Senators and giving it direct to popular suffrage. This sentiment has been greatly strengthened by the results of the system of direct primaries wherever established, and by recent disclosures concerning the manner in which some Senators have been elected. Direct nomination and election, it is claimed, would put an end to the practical purchase of a legislature by an aspirant for Senatorial honors, to the election by a legislature of a party whom the people of the State did not want, to the rejection of a party whom the people did want, and to various forms of corruption in the Legislature's choice. The practical impossibility of illegally influencing enough individual voters in a State to sway the result, as compared with the comparative ease with which enough legislative votes can be cornered to bring victory to a candidate backed by a great corporation support, is, of course, the chief reason advanced in advocacy of the nomination of United States Senators by the direct primary.

Another view of the question is found in the minority report of the United States Senate committee on the judiciary, rendered May 22, 1911, in opposition to a House resolution providing for direct elections of United States Senators under an amendment to the Constitution. The report, signed by Senators Root, Clark, Nelson, Dillingham, Brandegee, and Sutherland, formulated objections to the proposed amendment in so far as it takes from Congress all supervisory power over the times, places, and manner of holding the elections, and makes the State supreme in this respect. In a supplementary report Senators Root, Brandegee, and Dillingham declared opposition to the entire amendment, expressing the opinion that "the change would be injurious rather than beneficial, and that the abuses which have led to the proposal of the amendment can be obviated by a simple act of legislation without any amendment to the Constitution." It was further argued that the exercise of national power over the popular election of representatives meets now with no objection, and, under the proposed amendment, is to continue. The proposed change from legislative election of Senators to popular election of Senators furnished no reason whatever for destroying the ultimate power of control over the election of Senators which the national Congress now has under the Constitution.

On June 12, the Senate by a vote of 64 to 24 adopted the House resolution, together with an amendment vesting the federal government with supervision of such elections. The following is the text of the amendment (Article XVII.), declared in force May 31, 1913.

"The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years, and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

"When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacan-

cies, provided, that the legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the legislature may direct.

"This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution."

Direct Primary, a term denoting a method of making nominations for public elective offices that has recently been adopted in many parts of the United States. Instead of holding nominating conventions, voters meet at their usual polling places and vote for the persons they desire to have become candidates. Persons winning in these primary contests then have to go before the whole body of voters and risk election in the usual manner. The system is of comparatively recent introduction, but in the elections of 1910 direct primaries in one form or another were held in twenty-two States, as follows: Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin. This was the first time that so wide-spread direct primaries were held just before a national election. It is generally claimed for the system that it takes the selection of candidates for public office out of the hands of party leaders and places it where it properly belongs—in the hands of the voting public.

Direct Taxation. According to the Constitution of the United States, direct taxes must be apportioned among the States according to their population. An income tax must be a direct tax, and for the purpose of enabling the general government to levy an income tax, the 16th Amendment has been proposed.

Direct taxes were levied in 1798, 1813, 1815, and 1816. In August, 1861, a direct tax of $20,000,000 was levied; but the operation of this act was suspended, July 1, 1862. In March, 1891, a direct tax of $15,000,000 was collected, but was subsequently refunded to the States. See INCOME TAX.

Disbanding of the Union Armies. See ARMY, DISBANDING OF THE UNION; ARMIES.

Disbrowe, SAMUEL, magistrate; born in Cambridgeshire, England, Nov. 30, 1619; came to America in 1639; and bought from the Indians the site of Guilford, Conn. The constitution of this settlement in the writing of Disbrowe is still preserved and provides for judiciary, executive, and legislative departments, etc. He returned to England in 1650, and died in Cambridgeshire, Dec. 10, 1690.

Disciples of Christ, a religious body founded in Washington, Pa., 1811, by Thomas Campbell, a minister who had left the Presbyterian Church in Ireland and came to the United States in 1807. He deplored the divided state of the Church and the evils which arose therefrom. He held that the only remedy for this was a complete restoration of primitive apostolic Christianity. This view met with some approval, a new sect was formed, and the first church was organized on May 4, 1811. In addition to the fundamental truths which the Disciples of Christ hold in common with all Christian bodies the following may be cited as some of their more particular principles: 1. The Church of Christ is intentionally and constitutionally one; and all divisions which obstruct this unity are contrary to the will of God, and should be ended. 2. As schisms sprang from a departure from the New Testament Christianity, the remedy for them is to be found in the restoration of the Gospel in its purity. 3. In order to accomplish this restoration all human formulation of doctrine as authoritative bases for church membership must be surrendered, and the Bible received alone as the basis of all faith and practice; the exchange of all party names for scriptural names, and the restoration of the ordinances as they were originally. The polity of the Disciples is congregational; the local churches have elders and deacons. In 1910 the Disciples or Christians were divided into two bodies, known as the Disciples of Christ and the Churches of Christ. Together they reported 10,909 organizations, 1,142,359 communicants or members, 9,040 church edifices, church property valued at $29,995,316, 8,741 ministers, and 8,078 Sunday-schools, with 70,476 officers and teachers and 634,504 scholars. Of the two bodies, the first mentioned was the strongest in membership, 982,701.

Discoveries of the Nineteenth Century. Alfred Russell Wallace, in his book, *The Wonderful Century,* makes a comparison between the great inventions and discoveries of the nineteenth century and those of the entire previous historical period, which is as follows:

OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

1. Railways.
2. Steamships.
3. Electric telegraphs.
4. The telephone.
5. Lucifer matches.
6. Gas illumination.
7. Electric lighting.
8. Photography.
9. The phonograph.
10. Röntgen rays.
11. Spectrum analysis.
12. Anæsthetics.
13. Antiseptic surgery.
14. Conservation of energy.
15. Molecular theory of gases.
16. Velocity of light directly measured, and earth's rotation experimentally shown.
17. The uses of dust.
18. Chemistry, definite proportions.
19. Meteors and the meteoritic theory.
20. The Glacial Epoch.
21. The antiquity of man.
22. Organic evolution established.
23. Cell theory and embryology.
24. Germ theory of disease, and the function of the leucocytes.

OF ALL PRECEDING AGES.

1. The mariner's compass.
2. The steam-engine.
3. The telescope.
4. The barometer and thermometer.
5. Printing.
6. Arabic numerals.
7. Alphabetical writing.
8. Modern chemistry founded.
9. Electric science founded.
10. Gravitation established.
11. Kepler's laws.
12. The differential calculus.
13. The circulation of the blood.
14. Light proved to have finite velocity.
15. The development of geometry.

Disfranchisement. Several of the Southern States have revised, and others contemplate the revision, of their constitutions with a view to disfranchise illiterate negroes.

Louisiana.—There is an educational qualification, which, however, does not apply to men or to the sons or grandsons of men who were qualified to vote in 1867, nor to foreigners naturalized before Jan. 1, 1898.

Mississippi.—An educational qualification and a poll tax of $2, which may be further increased by a county poll tax of $1.

North Carolina.—An educational qualification and a poll tax are necessary, with the exception that the educational qualification shall not apply to any one who was entitled to vote under the laws of any State in the United States on Jan. 1, 1867.

South Carolina.—On Jan. 1, 1896, a new constitution went into effect by which voters could be enrolled up to Jan. 1, 1898, provided they could read or could explain to the satisfaction of the registering officer such parts of the Constitution of the United States as might be read to them, but after Jan. 1, 1898, only those able to read and write any required part of the Constitution, or who could prove themselves tax-payers on property worth not less than $300, could be enrolled as voters.

Maryland.—A new law was passed March 20, 1901, practically making an educational qualification to read and write necessary for enrolment as a voter.

See also ELECTIVE FRANCHISE.

Dismal Swamp, a morass in southern Virginia, extending into North Carolina. It was formerly 40 miles long and 25 miles wide, but has become somewhat reduced in area by drainage of its border. It is densely timbered with cypress, juniper, cedar, pine, etc. Lake Drummond, near its centre, covers about 6 square miles. This swamp rises towards its centre, which is considerably higher than its margin. The canal, constructed through the swamp to connect Chesapeake Bay with Albemarle Sound, has large historic interests. The company organized to build the canal received a joint charter from the legislative assemblies of Virginia and North Carolina on Dec. 1, 1787. The canal was opened to navigation in 1822; was wholly finished in 1828; and

was built with the assistance of the national government and the State of Virginia at a cost of $1,800,000. Originally it was 32 feet wide and 4 feet deep. Subsequently the width was increased to 40 feet and the depth to 6 feet, and the decaying wooden locks were replaced with stone ones. This canal was for many years the principal means of communication between the North and the South, and was a very profitable venture. After the Civil War its usefulness departed. Early in 1899 the canal, as entirely reconstructed, was reopened to navigation. It now extends from the village of Deep Creek, Va., to South Mills, N. C., a distance of 22 miles. The present canal is one of the most important links in the chain of inland waterways along the coast from New York to Florida, and, as the dangers of Cape Hatteras are avoided by it, it has a large value both in peace and war. Thomas Moore, the poet, while at Norfolk, put into verse an Indian legend, under the title of *The Lake of the Dismal Swamp.*

Disosway, GABRIEL POILLON, antiquary; born in New York City, Dec. 6, 1799; graduated at Columbia College in 1819; author of *The Earliest Churches of New York and its Vicinity.* He died on Staten Island, N. Y., July 9, 1868.

Disputed Elections. In 1800 a congressional caucus of the Federalists and Republicans declared that Jefferson and Burr, and Adams and Pinckney, should receive equal consideration in the electoral college. One Federalist elector from Rhode Island, however, refused to accept this dictum, and gave his second vote to John Jay. On February 11, 1801, Jefferson and Burr each had 73 votes in the electoral college. In accordance with the Constitution this threw the election in the House of Representatives. Burr would have been elected President had all the Federalists voted for him, but one Federalist from Georgia, one from Maryland, and one from North Carolina gave their votes for Jefferson. There were 19 votes taken on Wednesday, February 11, 9 on Thursday, 1 on Friday, 4 on Saturday, and 1 on Monday, February 16, all with the same result; that is, 8 States were for Jefferson, 6 for Burr, and 2 were divided. Finally, on Tuesday, February 17, the 35th ballot was taken with the usual result; but on the 36th ballot Jefferson received the vote of 10 States out of the 16 that voted, Delaware and South Carolina not having voted. This made Jefferson President and Burr Vice-President.

In 1824, there being no choice by the electoral college, the election was thrown into the House of Representatives with the result that by the first ballot, Feb. 9, 1825, 13 States voted for Adams, 7 for Jackson, and 4 for Crawford.

In 1837, the electoral college not having chosen a vice-president, the Senate chose Richard M. Johnson by a vote of 33 to 16 for Francis Granger. For the disputed election of 1876 see ELECTORAL COMMISSION.

Distribution of Wealth. According to a special *Bulletin* of the Federal Bureau of the Census (1904), the wealth of the people of the United States aggregated $107,104,211,917, and was represented by property as follows:

Real property taxed	$55,510,247,564
Real property exempt	6,831,244,570
Live-stock	4,073,791,736
Farm implements and machinery	844,989,863
Gold and silver coin and bullion	1,998,603,303
Manufacturing machinery, tools, etc	3,297,754,180
Railroads and their equipments	11,244,752,000
Street railways, etc	4,840,546,909
All other	18,462,281,792

In 1910 the per capita wealth was estimated at $1,310.11, and the per capita of all money in circulation at $34.53.

Districts. Divisions of the United States resembling territories, but without representative or elective institutions, such as Louisiana (formerly), Alaska (formerly), and District of Columbia.

District, Congressional, in the United States, a division of a State according to its population, sufficient in size to entitle it to a representative in Congress. The ratio of representation is established by Congress every ten years, and is based on the total population as reported by the last preceding census. This is in accordance with the provisions of the United States Constitution (Art. I, Sec. 2), which further declares that the number of representatives shall not exceed one for every 30,000; and, lest some State might have less than the required population, that each State shall have at least one representative. Under the census of 1900

the ratio of representation was 1 to 194,182; under that of 1910, 1 to 211,877. The action of the federal government ceases with the fixing of the rate, and each State establishes the boundaries of its own districts by an act of its legislature. See APPORTIONMENT, CONGRESSIONAL; REPRESENTATIVES, HOUSE OF.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

District of Columbia (named in honor of Columbus), a federal District and the seat of Government of the United States; in the South Atlantic Division of the North American Union; bounded on the n., n.w., e., and s.e. by Maryland, and on the w. and s.w. by Virginia, from which it is separated by the Potomac River; area, 70 square miles, of which 10 are water surface; extreme breadth e. to w. 9 miles; extreme length n. to s. 10 miles; capital, Washington; established as the seat of the national government in 1800; pop. (1910), 331,069.

General Statistics.—The rapidity with which the national capital is extending its business and residential area and the continual withdrawal from farm operations of outlying land in the District are shown in a report of the Bureau of the Census (1911), which indicated a marked decrease in all that pertained to the agricultural industry. The number of farms was reduced to 214, the improved acreage to $5,000, the value of land, buildings, and implements to $6,363,000, and the value of live-stock to $151,625. Manufacturing industries are represented by over $20,000,000 capital, and products, chiefly flour and grist, brick, and lumber, valued at the same amount. The former city of Georgetown is still officially the commercial port of the District and has imports of merchandise ranging annually from $500,000 to $800,000, but its exports are inconsiderable. There are twelve national banks, with combined capital, $6,052,000; individual deposits, over $23,000,000; and resources exceeding $49,000,000; and exchanges at the clearing-house in Washington have aggregated over $363,000,000 in a single year.

Religious interests are represented by 289 organizations, having 264 church edifices, 136,759 communicants or members, 56,771 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $10,025,122, the strongest denominations being the Roman Catholic, Baptist, Methodist, and Presbyterian. The Roman Catholic Church has an apostolic delegate and the Protestant Episcopal a bishop, both in Washington. The estimated number of children 5–18 years of age is about 70,600; enrollment in public schools, 54,800; in private schools, 6,000; value of public-school property, $7,100,000; total annual revenue, $2,697,000; total expenditure, $2,797,000. For higher education there are the Catholic University of America, with schools of theology and law; Gallaudet College (national); Georgetown University (R. C.), with schools of law and medicine; George Washington University (non-sect.), with schools of law and medicine; Howard University (national), for colored students), with schools of theology, law, and medicine; St. John's College (R. C.); Washington Christian College (non-sect.); Trinity College for Women (R. C.); National University Law School; and Washington College of Law. There are separate normal schools for white and colored students; separate reform schools for boys and girls; and for defectives, the Columbian Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, Gallaudet College for the Deaf, and Kendall School for the Deaf.

Government.—The present local government of the District is a municipal corporation having jurisdiction coincident with the territory which was ceded by the State of Maryland for the permanent seat of government of the United States, and which had been subject to the two municipal governments immediately preceding it. This government is administered by a board of three commissioners, two of whom are appointed from civil life by the President for a term of three years each, and the third is an officer detailed from time to time by the President from the Engineer Corps of the army. The salary of each commissioner is $5,000 per annum. The civil commissioners give bonds of $50,000 each; the engineer commissioner gives none. The various func-

tions of the municipal government are exercised by commissioners, boards, and other officials appointed by the District commissioners. In 1878 the duties of the Sinking Fund Commissioners of the District were transferred to the treasurer of the United States, and since that date Congress has appropriated annually a sum sufficient to pay not only the interest on the District's bonds, but also, it is believed, sufficient to extinguish the entire debt of the District upon the maturity of the 3.65 per cent. loan in 1924. The total funded debt in 1911 was $8,889,250; the total assessed property valuation, $323,956,753; and the tax rate, $15 per $1,000. The sole legislative authority is vested in Congress; citizens of the District have no vote in either local or national affairs; and the expenses of the municipal corporation are defrayed one-half by the revenue from taxes on private property and the remainder by Congressional appropriations.

GOVERNORS OF THE DISTRICT.

Name.	Date.
Henry D. Cooke	1871 to 1873
Alexander R. Shepherd	1873 " 1874

COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT, TEMPORARY GOVERNMENT.

Name.	Date.
William Dennison	1874 to 1878
Henry T. Blow	1874
John T. Ketchem	1874 to 1877
Seth L. Phelps	1875 " 1878
Thomas B. Bryan	1877 " 1878
Capt. Richard L. Hoxie, U. S. A.	1874 " 1878

COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT, PERMANENT GOVERNMENT.

Name.	Date.
Josiah Dent	1878 to 1882
Seth L. Phelps	1878 " 1879
Maj. William J. Turning, U. S. A.	1878 " 1882
Thomas P. Morgan	1879 " 1883
Maj. Garrett J. Lydecker, U. S. A.	1882 " 1886
Joseph R. West	1882 " 1885
James B. Edmonds	1883 " 1886
William B. Webb	1885 " 1889
Samuel E. Wheatley	1886 " 1889
Col. William Ludlow, U. S. A.	1886 " 1888
Maj. Charles W. Raymond, U. S. A.	1888 " 1890
John W. Douglass	1889 " 1893
Lemon G. Hine	1889 " 1890
Lt.-Col. Henry M. Robert, U. S. A.	1890 " 1891
John W. Ross	1890 " 1902
Capt. William T. Rossell, U. S. A.	1891 " 1893
Myron M. Parker	1893 " 1894
Maj. Charles F. Powell, U. S. A.	1893 " 1897
George Truesdell	1894 " 1897

COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT. PERMANENT GOVERNMENT.—(*Cont.*)

Name.	Date.
Capt. William M. Black, U. S. A.	1897 to 1898
John B. Wight	1897 " 1900
H. B. F. Macfarland	1900 " 1910
Capt. Lansing H. Beach, U. S. A.	1898 " 1910
Col. John Biddle, U. S. A.	1901 " 1907
Henry L. West	1902 " 1910
Maj J. J. Morrow, U. S. A.	1907 " 1908
Maj. Spencer Cosby, U. S. A.	1908 " 1909
Maj. W. V. Judson, U. S. A.	1909 " ——
Cuno H. Rudolph	1910 " ——
Gen. John A. Johnston, U. S. A.	1910 " ——

History.—The Potomac River was named the "River of Swans" by the Indian tribes who early dwelt along its shores, and the vicinity is believed to have been explored first by William Fleet, an Indian trader, who is known to have had business relations with Leonard Calvert about 1634. In or near 1660 an Englishman named Pope acquired a considerable tract of land here and undertook to establish himself on a magnificent scale. He named the tract Rome; a stream then running through it and now the site of a portion of Pennsylvania Avenue, the Tiber; and the most elevated spot, where the Capitol now stands, Capitoline Hill; and then, in furtherance of his fancy, signed all his letters and documents, of which he issued many, "The Pope of Rome." The exigencies of the Revolutionary period rendered it impossible for Congress to have a settled seat, and its sessions were held at various times, and under more or less threatening conditions, in Philadelphia, Baltimore, Lancaster, York, Princeton, Annapolis, Trenton, and New York. On June 21, 1783, while Congress was sitting in Philadelphia, a body of disaffected militia made a threatening demonstration against the delegates, which resulted in breaking up the session. When the Congress reassembled one of its first acts was to resolve, Oct. 7, 1783, that a building for its use should be erected at some place near the falls of the Delaware. This resolution aroused a sectional jealousy, and it was amended so as to provide for two meeting places, one near the falls of the Potomac, in which alternate sessions could be held. After a long debate the original resolution was adopted, and commissioners were appointed to lay out a federal town. A re-

port was submitted by the commissioners, but owing to a lack of funds no steps were taken under it.

The requisite area for the present site of the seat of government was offered to Congress by the States of Maryland and Virginia. The former State, by an act of its General Assembly passed Dec. 23, 1788, directed its representatives in the House of Representatives of the Congress of the United States to cede to the Congress of the United States any district in said State not exceeding ten miles square which the Congress might fix upon and accept for the seat of government. The latter State, by an act of its General Assembly passed Dec. 3, 1789, ceded a like tract or any lesser quantity of Virginia territory for the same purpose. Maryland also gave $72,000, and loaned $250,000 more for the erection of public buildings in the District for the use of the general government. Virginia made a grant of $120,000 for the same purpose in case of the acceptance by Congress of the cession of the site offered by it for the seat of government. The southern limit of the area of selection for the site of the District was placed by the act of March 3, 1791, at Hunting Creek, an estuary of the Potomac River which enters that river from the west immediately below Alexandria, Va. The northern limit was fixed by the act of July 16, 1790, at a small stream named Connogochegue Creek, which enters the Potomac River from the north, at Williamsport, Md., about 80 miles above the southern limit.

The District of Columbia was established as the seat of government of the United States by proceedings taken under authority and direction of acts of Congress approved July 16, 1790, entitled "An act for establishing the temporary and permanent seat of the government of the United States" (1 *Statutes*, 130), and the act of March 3, 1791, entitled "An act to amend 'An act for establishing the temporary and permanent seat of the government of the United States'" (1 *Statutes*, 214), pursuant to the following provision contained in the eighth section of the first article of the Constitution of the United States, enumerating the powers of Congress—*viz.*:

"To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased, by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings."

The land boundary of the District of Columbia is marked on the ground by sandstone mileposts 1 foot square and 2 feet high, numbered from 1 to 9 from right to left. They bear on the side facing the District the legend, "Jurisdiction of the United States," and the number of miles they respectively are from the corner at which the numerical series to which they belong begins. On the opposite side they bear the inscription, "Maryland," on the third side the year 1792, and on the fourth side the variations of the compass.

At the time the District was established three towns existed in the portion of it which was ceded from Maryland—namely, Georgetown, Carrollsburg, and Hamburg. The last two, although they were laid out on the records, had no corporeal existence. Carrollsburg was the name of a tract on the northern bank of the Eastern Branch east of Arsenal Point, containing 160 acres, subdivided into 268 lots, under a deed of trust recorded at "Marlborough," Md., Nov. 2, 1770. Hamburg, sometimes called Funkstown, fronted on the Potomac in the neighborhood of Twenty-fourth Street West, and contained 120 acres, subdivided into 287 lots, by its owner, Jacob Funk, by a plat also recorded at "Marlborough," Md., Oct. 28, 1771.

The first mention of the name "District of Columbia" in an act of Congress is in the title, but not in the body, of "An act authorizing a loan for the use of the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia, and for other purposes therein mentioned," approved May 6, 1796; but a previous statutory use of the name appears in the fourth section of the act of the Maryland legislature, approved in November, 1793, entitled "A further supplement to the act concerning the Territory of Columbia and the city of Washington." The seat of government is mentioned in at least one act of Congress as the Territory

of Columbia and the District of Columbia, indiscriminately.

Although the territory at the seat of government is referred to in various statutes as the District of Columbia, it was not until Feb. 21, 1871, that Congress directly legislated on the subject of naming it, which it did by the following clause in the act of that date, entitled "An act to provide a government for the District of Columbia":

That all that part of the territory of the United States included within the limits of the District of Columbia be, and the same is hereby, created into a government by the name of the District of Columbia, by which name it is hereby constituted a body corporate for municipal purposes.

But this act omitted to define the limits to which it referred.

Congress, obviously in doubt as to the sufficiency of that action, again legislated on the subject in the act entitled "An act providing a permanent form of government for the District of Columbia," approved June 11, 1878, as follows:

That all the territory which was ceded by the State of Maryland to the Congress of the United States for the permanent seat of government of the United States shall continue to be designated as the District of Columbia.

In this latter act Congress definitely indicates the territory it names.

The District consists topographically of an urban section named "the city of Washington" and of a suburban and agricultural section which contains a number of unincorporated villages. Its surface is generally irregular and undulating, rising from the level of mean low tide in the contiguous Potomac River to an elevation of 420 feet at the highest point, which is about a half-mile southeastwardly from its northwestern boundary.

The act of Congress of Feb. 21, 1871, which revoked the charters of the corporations of the city of Washington, Georgetown, and the levy court of the county of Washington, established in their stead a single municipal government named the District of Columbia. The new municipality consisted of a governor, a board of public works composed of the governor and four other persons, a secretary, a board of health, a legislative assembly consisting of a council of 11 members and a house of delegates consisting of 22 members, and a delegate in the House of Representatives of the United States. The governor, the board of public works, the secretary, the board of health, and the council were appointed by the President of the United States, by and with the consent of the Senate. The members of the house of delegates and the delegate in the House of Representatives were elected by the qualified voters of the District of Columbia. The official term of the governor, members of the board of public works, the secretary, and the members of the board of health was four years; the term of the members of the council and the delegate to Congress two years, and the term of the members of the house of delegates one year.

On June 20, 1874, by an act of Congress of that date the form of government established by the act of February 21, 1871, was abolished and the executive municipal authority in the District temporarily vested in three Commissioners appointed by the President of the United States and confirmed by the Senate, who succeeded in general to the powers and duties of the governor and the board of public works, and were assisted by an officer of the Engineer Corps of the United States army detailed for that purpose under the requirements of the first-named act. This temporary form of government existed until July 1, 1878, when, pursuant to an act of Congress of June 11, 1878, it was succeeded by the present form. For further details see WASHINGTON, CITY OF.

Disunion, EARLY THREATS OF. In angry debates in Congress on the subject of the fisheries, in 1779, threats of disunion were made by deputies of the North and the South. It was shown that the prosperity of New England depended on the fisheries; but in this the Southern States had no common interest. Indeed, in all the States the doctrine of State supremacy was so universally prevalent that the deputies in Congress, instead of willingly legislating for the whole, legislated for their respective States. When appeals had been made in Congress for a favorable consideration of New England in relation to the fisheries without effect, Samuel Adams said that "it would become more and more necessary for the

two empires [meaning the Northern and Southern States divided by Mason and Dixon's line] to separate." When the North offered a preliminary resolution that the country, even if deserted by France and Spain, would continue the war for the sake of the fisheries, four States drew up a protest, declaring peremptorily that if the resolution should be adopted they would withdraw from the confederation. These sectional interests continually stood in the way of a perfect union of the struggling colonists. The inflexible tenacity with which each State asserted its title to complete sovereignty often menaced the Union with destruction, and independence became, in the minds of some, an idle dream. When, in August, 1781, envoys from Vermont were in Philadelphia, entreating for the admission of their State into the Union, the measure was opposed by the Southern delegates, because it would "destroy the balance of power" between the two sections of the confederacy, and give the preponderance to the North. The purchase of Louisiana was deprecated and violently opposed by the Federalist leaders, because it would strengthen the Southern political influence then controlling the national government. They professed to regard the measure as inimical to the Northern and Eastern sections of the Union. The Southern politicians had made them familiar with the prescription of disunion as a remedy for incurable political evils, and they resolved to try its efficacy in the case in question. All through the years 1803 and 1804 desires for and fears of a dissolution of the Union were freely expressed in what were free-labor States in 1861. East of the Alleghanies, early in 1804, a select convention of Federalists, to be held in Boston, was contemplated, in the ensuing autumn, to consider the question of disunion. Alexander Hamilton was invited to attend it, but his emphatic condemnation of the whole plan, only a short time before his death, seems to have disconcerted the leaders and dissipated the scheme. The Rev. Jedidiah Morse, then very influential in the Church and in politics in New England, advocated the severance of the Eastern States from the Union, so as to get rid of the evils of the slave system; and, later, Josiah Quincy, in a debate in the House of Representatives, expressed his opinion that it might become necessary to divide the Union as a cure of evils that seemed to be already chronic. The Federalists of New England threatened to secede in 1811 and 1814.

DIVORCE LAWS OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES

Divorce Laws. Excepting in South Carolina, which has no divorce laws, a violation of the marriage vow is cause for divorce in all the States and Territories. Other legal causes are shown below:

Alabama.—Abandonment two years; crime against nature; habitual drunkenness; violence; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage; physical incapacity; imprisonment for two years for felony. Residence required, three years.

Alaska.—Felony; physical incapacity; desertion two years; cruelty; habitual drunkenness. Residence required, three years.

Arizona.—Felony; physical incapacity; desertion one year; excesses; cruelty; neglect to provide one year; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage; conviction of felony prior to marriage unknown to other party; habitual drunkenness. Residence required, one year.

Arkansas.—Desertion one year; felony; habitual drunkenness one year; cruelty; former marriage existing, physical incapacity; permanent insanity. Residence required, one year.

California.—Cruelty; desertion one year; neglect one year; habitual drunkenness one year; felony. Residence required, one year.

Colorado.—Desertion one year; physical incapacity; cruelty; failure to provide one year; habitual drunkenness one year; felony; former marriage existing. Residence required, one year.

Connecticut.—Fraudulent contract; wilful desertion three years with total neglect of duty; habitual drunkenness; cruelty; imprisonment for life; infamous

crime involving violation of conjugal duty and punishable by imprisonment in State prison; seven years' absence without being heard from. Residence required, three years.

Delaware.—Desertion three years; habitual drunkenness; physical incapacity; cruelty; felony—and at the discretion of the Court, fraud; want of age; neglect to provide three years. Residence required, two years.

District of Columbia.—Marriages may be annulled for former existing marriage; lunacy; fraud; coercion; physical incapacity; and want of age at time of marriage. Residence required, two years.

Florida.—Cruelty; violent temper; habitual drunkenness; physical incapacity; desertion one year; former marriage existing; relationship within prohibited degrees. Residence required, two years.

Georgia.—Mental and physical incapacity; desertion three years; felony; cruelty; habitual drunkenness; force; duress or fraud in obtaining marriage; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage; relationship within prohibited degrees.

Idaho.—Cruelty; desertion one year; neglect one year; habitual drunkenness one year; felony; insanity. Residence required, six months.

Illinois.—Desertion two years; habitual drunkenness two years; former existing marriage; cruelty; felony; physical incapacity; attempt on life of other party; divorced party cannot marry for two years. Residence required, one year.

Indiana.—Abandonment two years; cruelty; habitual drunkenness; failure to provide two years; felony; physical incapacity. Required residence, two years.

Iowa.—Desertion two years; felony; habitual drunkenness; cruelty; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage. The marriage may be annulled for the following causes existing at the time of the marriage: Insanity; physical incapacity; former existing marriage; consanguinity. Residence required, one year.

Kansas.—Abandonment one year; cruelty; fraud; habitual drunkenness; gross neglect of duty; felony; physical incapacity; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage; former existing marriage. Residence required, one year.

Kentucky.—Separation five years; desertion one year; felony; physical incapacity; loathsome disease; habitual drunkenness one year; cruelty; force; fraud or duress in obtaining marriage; joining religious sect believing marriage unlawful; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage or subsequent unchaste behavior; ungovernable temper. Residence required, one year.

Louisiana.—Felony; habitual drunkenness; excesses; cruelty; public defamation of other party; abandonment; attempt on life of other party; fugitive from justice. Residence required, none.

Maine.—Cruelty; desertion three years; physical incapacity; habits of intoxication by liquors, opium, or other drugs; neglect to provide; insanity, under certain limitations. Residence required, one year.

Maryland.—Abandonment three years; unchastity of wife before marriage; physical incapacity; any cause which renders the marriage null and void *ab initio.* Residence required, two years.

Massachusetts. — Cruelty; desertion three years; habits of intoxication by liquors, opium, or other drugs; neglect to provide; physical incapacity; imprisonment for felony; uniting for three years with religious sect believing marriage unlawful. Residence required, three to five years.

Michigan.—Felony; desertion two years; habitual drunkenness; physical incapacity; and in the discretion of the court for cruelty or neglect to provide. Residence required, one year.

Minnesota.—Desertion one year; habitual drunkenness; physical incapacity; imprisonment for felony. Residence required, one year.

Mississippi. — Felony; desertion two years; consanguinity; physical incapacity; habitual drunkenness by liquor, opium, or other drugs; cruelty; insanity at time of marriage; former existing marriage; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage. Residence required, one year.

Missouri.—Felony; absence one year; habitual drunkenness one year; cruelty; indignities; vagrancy; former existing marriage; physical incapacity; conviction of felony prior to marriage unknown to other party; wife pregnant by other than

husband at marriage. Residence required, one year.

Montana.—Cruelty; desertion; neglect one year; habitual drunkenness one year; felony; innocent party may not remarry within two years, and guilty party within three years of the divorce. Residence required, one year.

Nebraska.—Abandonment two years; habitual drunkenness; physical incapacity; felony; failure to support two years; cruelty. Residence required, one year.*

Nevada.—Desertion one year; felony; habitual drunkenness; physical incapacity; cruelty; neglect to provide one year. Residence required, six months.

New Hampshire.—Cruelty; felony; physical incapacity; absence three years; habitual drunkenness three years; failure to provide three years; treatment endangering health or reason; union with sect regarding marriage unlawful; wife separate without the State ten years, not claiming marital rights; husband absent from United States three years intending to become citizen of another country without making any provision for wife's support. Residence required, one year.

New Jersey.—Desertion two years; cruelty. No divorce may be obtained on grounds arising in another State unless they constituted ground for divorce in the State where they arose. The marriage may be annulled for the following causes existing at the time of the marriage: Want of legal age; former existing marriage; consanguinity; physical incapacity; idiocy. Residence required, two years.

New Mexico.—Abandonment; cruelty; neglect to provide; habitual drunkenness; felony; physical incapacity; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage. Residence required, one year.

*New York.***—Adultery only. The marriage may be annulled for such causes as rendered the relationship void at its inception.

North Carolina.—Pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage; physical incapacity; husband and wife living apart for ten years and having no issue.

North Dakota.—Cruelty; desertion one year; neglect one year; habitual drunkenness one year; felony. The marriage may be annulled for the following causes existing at the time of the marriage: Former existing marriage; insanity; physical incapacity; force or fraud inducing the marriage or want of age. Residence required, one year.

Ohio.—Absence three years; cruelty; fraud; gross neglect of duty; habitual drunkenness three years; felony; former existing marriage; procurement of divorce without the State by one party, which continues marriage binding upon other party; physical incapacity. Residence required, one year.

Oklahoma.—Abandonment one year; cruelty; fraud; habitual drunkenness; felony; gross neglect of duty; physical incapacity; former existing marriage; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage. Residence required, one year.

Oregon.—Felony; habitual drunkenness one year; physical incapacity; desertion one year; cruelty or personal indignities rendering life burdensome. Residence required, one year.

Pennsylvania.—Former existing marriage; desertion two years; personal abuse or conduct rendering life burdensome; felony; fraud; relationship within prohibited degrees; physical incapacity and lunacy. Residence required, one year.

Rhode Island.—Cruelty; desertion five years; habitual drunkenness; excessive use of morphine, opium, or chloral; neglect to provide one year; gross misbehavior; living separate ten years; physical incapacity. Either party civilly dead for crime or prolonged absence. The marriage may be annulled for causes rendering the relationship originally void or voidable. Residence required, two years.

South Carolina.—No divorces granted.

South Dakota.—Cruelty; desertion one year; neglect one year; habitual drunkenness one year; felony. The marriage may be annulled for the following causes existing at the time of the marriage: Want of age; former existing marriage; insanity; physical incapacity; force or fraud inducing marriage.

Tennessee.—Former existing marriage; desertion two years; felony; physical incapacity; attempt on life of other party; refusal of wife to live with husband in the State and absenting herself two years;

* Two years for causes arising out of State.
** Actual residence.

pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage; at the discretion of the court for cruelty, indignities, abandonment, or neglect to provide; habitual drunkenness. Residence required, two years.

Texas.—Abandonment three years; physical incapacity; cruelty; excess, or outrages rendering life together insupportable; felony. Residence required, six months.

Utah.—Desertion one year; neglect to provide; physical incapacity; habitual drunkenness; felony; cruelty; permanent insanity. Residence required, one year.

Vermont.—Imprisonment three years; intolerable severity; desertion three years; neglect to provide; absence seven years without being heard from. Residence required, one year.

Virginia.—Insanity at marriage; felony; desertion three years; fugitive from justice two years; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage; wife a prostitute, or either party convicted of felony before marriage unknown to other; physical incapacity. Residence required, one year.

Washington.—Abandonment one year; fraud; habitual drunkenness; refusal to provide; felony; physical incapacity; incurable insanity; cruelty or indignities rendering life burdensome; other cause deemed sufficient by the court. Residence required, one year.

West Virginia.—Desertion three years; felony; physical incapacity; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage; husband a licentious character or wife a prostitute unknown to other party; either party convicted of felony before marriage unknown to other. The marriage may be annulled for the following causes existing at the time of the marriage; former existing marriage; consanguinity; insanity; physical incapacity; miscegenation; want of age. Residence required, one year.

Wisconsin.—Felony; desertion one year; cruelty; physical incapacity; habitual drunkenness one year; separation five years; in the discretion of the court for cruelty or neglect to provide. The marriage may be annulled for the following causes existing at the time of the marriage: Want of age, or understanding, consanguinity, force or fraud inducing marriage; where marriage was contracted with former marriage existing the second marriage is void without any divorce proceedings. Residence required, one year.

Wyoming.—Felony; desertion one year; habitual drunkenness; cruelty; neglect to provide one year; husband a vagrant; physical incapacity; indignities rendering condition intolerable; pregnancy of wife by other than husband at marriage; either party convicted of felony before marriage unknown to other. The marriage may be annulled for the following causes existing at the time of the marriage: Want of age, force, or fraud. The marriage is void without proceedings: consanguinity; insanity; former existing marriage. Residence required, one year.

Divorce Laws, Uniform. Upon the question of the desirability of a uniform divorce law in the United States, Elizabeth Cady Stanton (*q. v.*), the well-known advocate of woman's suffrage, writes as follows:

There has been much discussion of late in regard to the necessity for an entire revision of the laws on divorce. For this purpose, the State proposes a committee of learned judges, the Church another of distinguished bishops, to frame a national law which shall be endorsed by both Church and State. Though women are as deeply interested as men in this question, there is no suggestion that women shall be represented on either committee. Hence, the importance of some expressions of their opinions before any changes are made. As judges and bishops are proverbially conservative, their tendency would be to make the laws in the free States more restrictive than they now are, and thus render it more difficult for wives to escape from unhappy marriages.

The States which have liberal divorce laws are to women what Canada was to the slaves before the emancipation. The applicants for divorce are chiefly women, as Naquet's bill, which passed the Chamber of Deputies of France, abundantly proves. In the first year there were 3,000 applications, the greater number being women.

Unhappy husbands have many ways of mitigating their miseries which are not open to wives, who are financial dependants and burdened with children. Husbands can leave the country and invest their property in foreign lands. Laws

affect only those who respect and obey them. Laws made to restrain unprincipled men fall with crushing weight on women. A young woman with property of her own can now easily free herself from an unworthy husband by spending a year in a free State, and in due time she can marry again.

Because an inexperienced girl has made a mistake—partly, in many cases, through the bad counsel of her advisers—shall she be denied the right to marry again? We can trace the icy fingers of the canon law in all our most sacred relations. Through the evil influences of that law, the Church holds the key to the situation, and is determined to keep it. At a triennial Episcopal convention held in Washington, D. C., bishops, with closed doors, discussed the question of marriage and divorce *ad libitum*, a large majority of the bishops being in favor of the most restrictive canons; and, though an auxiliary convention was held at the same time, composed of 1,500 women, members of the Episcopal Church, they had no part in the discussion, covering a dozen or more canon laws.

A recent writer on this subject says:

"There is no doubt that the sentiment in the Episcopal Church, at least among the clergy, is strongly in favor of the Church setting its face firmly against divorce. An evidence of this is the circulation of a petition to the convention requesting that it adopt some stringent rule for this purpose, which has already received the signatures of about 2,000 of the clergy. The proposition to adopt a stringent canon received the undivided support of the High Church ministers, and finds many supporters in the Low Church."

The question of marriage and divorce, and the attitude the Church should take towards divorced persons who wish to marry again, has been up before many general conventions. The attitude of the Episcopal Church has always been strongly against divorce, and particularly against the marriage of divorced persons. The Catholic Church takes a still narrower ground, positively declining to recognize such an institution as divorce.

As early as the year 1009, it was enacted by the Church authorities of England that a Christian should never marry a divorced woman. Down to 1857, it was necessary that a private act of Parliament should be passed in order that a divorce could be obtained. In 1857, the State took action looking towards the granting of divorces by the courts without the interposition of Parliament, but this action has not been sanctioned by the Church of England. Hence has arisen a peculiar state of affairs in England, which has led to considerable confusion. The Church forbids the marriage of either party, except of the innocent parties in cases where the cause is adultery. But as the State permits the marriage of divorced parties, the ministers of the Church of England were put in an awkward position. As ministers of the Church, they were forbidden to marry these persons, but as the Church is allied to the State, and to a certain extent subject to it, a number of them believed it their civil duty to perform such marriages, and they performed them in violation of the canonical law. The agitation over this question has attracted a great deal of attention during the last few years, and is looked upon as being one of the most powerful causes which may lead to the disestablishment of the Church of England.

Marriage should be regarded as a civil contract, entirely under the jurisdiction of the State. The less latitude the Church has in our temporal affairs, the better.

Lord Brougham says: "Before woman can have any justice by the laws of England, there must be a total reconstruction of the whole marriage system; for any attempt to amend it would prove useless. The great charter, in establishing the supremacy of law over prerogative, provided only for justice between man and man; for woman nothing was left but common law, accumulations and modifications of original Gothic and Roman heathenism, which no amount of filtration through ecclesiastical courts could change into Christian laws. They are declared unworthy of a Christian people by great jurists; still, they remain unchanged."

There is a demand just now for an amendment to the United States Constitution that shall make the laws of marriage and divorce the same in all the States of the Union. As the suggestion comes uniformly from those who con-

sider the present divorce laws too liberal, we may infer that the proposed national law is to place the whole question on the narrowest basis, rendering null and void the laws that have been passed in a broader spirit, according to the needs and experiences of certain sections of the sovereign people. And here let us bear in mind that the widest possible law would not make divorce obligatory on any one, while a restricted law, on the contrary, would compel many, who married, perhaps, under more liberal laws, to remain in uncongenial relations.

We are still in the experimental stage on this question; we are not qualified to make a law that would work satisfactorily over so vast an area as our boundaries now embrace. I see no evidence in what has been published on this question, of late, by statesmen, ecclesiasts, lawyers, and judges, that any of them have thought sufficiently on the subject to prepare a well-digested code, or a comprehensive amendment of the national Constitution. Some view marriage as a civil contract, though not governed by the laws of other contracts; some view it as a religious ordinance—a sacrament; some think it a relation to be regulated by the State, others by the Church, and still others think it should be left wholly to the individual. With this divergence of opinion among our leading minds, it is quite evident that we are not prepared for a national law.

Local self-government more readily permits of experiments on mooted questions, which are the outcome of the needs and convictions of the community. The smaller the area over which legislation extends, the more pliable are the laws. By leaving the States free to experiment in their local affairs we can judge of the working of different laws under varying circumstances, and thus learn their comparative merits. The progress education has made in America is due to the fact that we have left our system of public instruction in the hands of local authorities. How different would be the solution of the great educational question of manual labor in the schools, if the matter had to be settled at Washington!

From these considerations, our wisest course seems to be to leave these questions wholly to the civil rather than to the canon law, to the jurisdiction of the several States rather than to the nation.

As many of our leading ecclesiastics and statesmen are discussing this question, it is surprising that women, who are equally happy or miserable in these relations, manifest so little interest in the pending proposition, and especially as it is not to their interest to have an amendment to the national Constitution establishing a uniform law. In making any contract, the parties are supposed to have an equal knowledge of the situation, and an equal voice in the agreement. This has never been the case with the contract of marriage. Women are, and always have been, totally ignorant of the provisions of the canon and civil laws, which men have made and administered, and then, to impress woman's religious nature with the sacredness of this one-sided contract, they claim that all these heterogeneous relations called marriage are made by God, appealing to that passage of Scripture, "What God hath joined together, let no man put asunder."

Now, let us substitute the natural laws for God. When two beings contract, the State has the right to ask the question, Are the parties of proper age, and have they sufficient judgment to make so important a contract? And the State should have the power to dissolve the contract if any incongruities arise, or any deception has been practised, just as it has the power to cancel the purchase of a horse, if he is found to be blind in one eye, balks when he should go, or has a beautiful false tail, skilfully adjusted, which was the chief attraction to the purchaser.

We must remember that the reading of the marriage service does not signify that God hath joined the couple together. That is not so. Only those marriages that are harmonious, where the parties are really companions for each other, are in the highest sense made by God. But what shall we say of that large class of men and women who marry for wealth, position, mere sensual gratification, without any real attraction or religious sense of loyalty towards each other. You might as well talk of the same code of regulations for honest, law-abiding citizens, and for criminals in our State prisons, as for

these two classes. The former are a law to themselves; they need no iron chains to hold them together. The other class, having no respect for law whatever, will defy all constitutional provisions. The time has come when the logic of facts is more conclusive than the deductions of theology.

It is a principle of the common law of England that marriage is a civil contract, and the same law has been acknowledged by statutes in several of our American States; and in the absence of expressed statute to the contrary, the common law of England is deemed the common law of our country.

Questions involved in marriage and divorce should be, in the churches, matters of doctrinal teaching and discipline only; and, after having discussed for centuries the question as to what the Bible teaches concerning divorce, without arriving at any settled conclusion, they should agree somewhat among themselves before they attempt to dictate State legislation on the subject. It simplifies this question to eliminate the pretensions of the Church and the Bible as to its regulation. As the Bible sanctions divorce and polygamy, in the practice of the chosen people, and is full of contradictions, and the canon law has been pliable in the hands of ecclesiastics, enforced or set aside at the behests of kings and nobles, it would simplify the discussion to confine it wholly to the civil law, regarding divorce as a State question.

Dix, Dorothea Lynde, philanthropist; born in Worcester, Mass., about 1794. After her father's death she supported herself by teaching a school for young girls in Boston. Becoming interested in the welfare of the convicts in the State prison at Charlestown, her philanthropic spirit expanded and embraced all of the unfortunate and suffering classes. Having inherited from a relative property sufficient to render her independent, she went to Europe for her health. Returning to Boston in 1837, she devoted her life to the investigation and alleviation of the condition of paupers, lunatics, and prisoners, encouraged by her friend and pastor, Dr. Channing. In this work she visited every State in the Union east of the Rocky Mountains, endeavoring to persuade legislatures to aid the unfortunate, and was instrumental in bringing about the foundation of several State asylums for the insane. At the breaking out of the Civil War she was appointed superintendent of hospital nurses, and after the close of the war she resumed her efforts in behalf of the insane. She died in Trenton, N. J., July 19, 1887.

Dix, John Adams, military officer; born in Boscawen, N. H., July 24, 1798. After he left the academy at Exeter, N. H., he completed his studies in a French college at Montreal. He entered the army as a cadet in 1812, when the war with

JOHN ADAMS DIX.

England began. While his father, Lieutenant-Colonel Dix, was at Fort McHenry, Baltimore, young Dix pursued his studies at St. Mary's College. In the spring of 1813 he was appointed an ensign in the army, and was soon promoted to third lieutenant, and made adjutant of an independent battalion of nine companies. He was commissioned a captain in 1825, and having continued in the army sixteen years, in 1828 he left the military service. His father had been mortally hurt at Chrysler's Field, and the care of extricating the paternal estate from difficulties, for the benefit of his mother and her nine children, had devolved upon him. He had studied law while in the army. After visiting Europe for his health, Captain Dix settled as a lawyer in Cooperstown, N. Y. He became warmly engaged in politics, and in 1830 Governor Throop appointed him adjutant-general of the State.

Treasury Department
Jan. 29, 1861

Tele Lieut Caldwell to arrest
Capt. Breshwood, assume command
of the Cutter and obey the order I gave
through You. If Capt. Breshwood
after arrest undertakes to interfere
with the command of the Cutter, tell
Lieut. Caldwell to consider him
as a mutineer & treat him accord-
ingly. If any one attempts to haul
down the American flag shoot
him on the spot. —

John A. Dix
Secretary of the Treasury.

In 1833 he was elected secretary of state of New York, which office made him a member of the Board of Regents of the University and conferred upon him other important positions. Chiefly through his exertions public libraries were introduced into the school districts of the State and the school laws systematized. In 1842 he was a member of the New York Assembly, and from 1845 to 1849 of the United States Senate. In the discussion of the question of the annexation of Texas and of slavery he expressed the views of the small Free Soil party whose candidate for governor he was in 1848. In 1859 he was appointed postmaster of New York City; and when in January, 1861, Buchanan's cabinet was dissolved, he was called to the post of Secretary of the Treasury. In that capacity he issued a famous order under the following circumstances: He found the department in a wretched condition, and proceeded with energy in the administration of it. Hearing of the tendency in the slave-labor States to seize United States property within their borders, he sent a special agent of his department (Hemphill Jones) to secure for service revenue cutters at Mobile and New Orleans. He found the *Lewis Cass* in the hands of the Confederates at Mobile. The *Robert McClelland*, at New Orleans, was in command of Capt. J. G. Breshwood, of the navy. Jones gave the captain an order from Dix to sail to the North. Breshwood absolutely refused to obey the order. This fact Jones made known, by telegraph, to Dix, and added that the collector at New Orleans (Hatch) sustained the rebellious captain. Dix instantly telegraphed back his famous order, of which

THE DIX MEDAL.

a fac-simile is given on the opposite page. The Confederates in New Orleans had possession of the telegraph, and did not allow this despatch to pass, and the *McClelland* was handed over to the authorities of Louisiana. As Secretary Dix's order was flashed over the land it thrilled every heart with hope that the temporizing policy of the administration had ended. The loyal people rejoiced, and a small medal was struck by private hands commemorative of the event, on one side of which was the Union flag, and around it the words, "THE FLAG OF OUR UNION, 1863"; on the other, in two circles, the last clause of Dix's famous order. After the war the authorship of the famous order was claimed for different persons, and it was asserted that General Dix was only the medium for its official communication. In reply to an inquiry addressed to General Dix at the close of August, 1873, he responded as follows from his country residence:

SEAFIELD, WEST HAVEN, N. Y., *Sept.* 21, 1873.

"Your favor is received. The 'order' alluded to was written by myself, without any suggestion from any one, and it was sent off three days before it was communicated to the President or cabinet. Mr. Stanton's letter to Mr. Bonner, of the *Ledger*, stating that it was wholly mine, was published in the New York *Times* last October or late in September, to silence forever the misrepresentations in regard to it. After writing it (about seven o'clock in the evening), I gave it to Mr. Hardy, a clerk in the Treasury Department, to copy. The copy was signed by me, and sent to the telegraph office the same evening, and the original was kept, like all other original despatches. It is now, as you state, in possession of my son, Rev. Dr. Dix, No. 27 West Twenty-fifth street, New York. It was photographed in 1863 or 1864, and you, no doubt, have the facsimile thus made.

"Very truly yours, JOHN A. DIX."

General Dix was appointed major-general of volunteers May 16, 1861; commander at Baltimore, and then at Fort Monroe and on the Virginia peninsula; and in September, 1862, he was placed in command of the 7th Army Corps. He was also chosen president of the Pacific Railway Company. In 1866 he was appointed minister to France, which post he filled until 1869. He was elected governor of the State of New York in 1872, and retired to private life at the end of the term of two years, at which time he performed rare service for the good name of the State of New York. General Dix was a fine classical scholar, and translated several passages from Catullus, Virgil, and

others into polished English verse. He made a most conscientious and beautiful translation of the *Dies Iræ*. He died in New York City, April 21, 1879.

Dix, JOHN ALDEN, statesman; born in Glens Falls, N. Y., Dec. 25, 1861; was graduated at Cornell University in 1883; engaged in lumbering, paper-making, and banking; was defeated as Democratic candidate for lieutenant-governor of New York in 1908; elected governor in 1910 by a plurality of 105,189 votes over HENRY L. STIMSON (*q. v.*), his Republican opponent.

Dixie, a supposed imaginary land of luxurious enjoyment somewhere in the Southern States, and during the Civil War it became a collective designation for the slave-labor States. "Dixie" songs and "Dixie" music prevailed all over those States and in the Confederate army. It had no such significance. It is a simple refrain that originated among negro emigrants to the South from Manhattan, or New York, Island about 1800. A man named Dixy owned a large tract of land on that island and many slaves. They became unprofitable, and the growth of the abolition sentiment made Dixy's slaves uncertain property. He sent quite a large number of them to Southern planters and sold them. The heavier burdens imposed on them there, and the memories of their birthplace and its comforts on Manhattan, made them sigh for Dixy's. It became with them synonymous with an earthly paradise, and the exiles sang a simple refrain in a pathetic manner about the joys of Dixy's. Additions to it elevated it into the dignity of a song and it was chanted by the negroes all over the South, which, in the Civil War, was called the "Land of Dixie."

Dixon, JEREMIAH. See MASON, CHARLES.

Dixon, WILLIAM HEPWORTH, author; born in Yorkshire, England, June 30, 1821; was mostly self-educated. He visited the United States in 1866 and 1874. His treatment of the United States in his published works has been considered unfair and incorrect in this country. His books relating to the United States include *White Conquest* (containing information of the Indians, negroes, and Chinese in America;) *Life of William Penn*, and *New America*. He died in London Dec. 27, 1879.

Dobbin, JAMES COCHRANE, statesman; born in Fayetteville, N. C., in 1814; graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1832; elected to Congress in 1845; and in 1848 to the State legislature, of which he became speaker in 1850. In 1853 President Pierce appointed him Secretary of the Navy. He died in Fayetteville Aug. 4, 1857.

Docks, artificial basins for the reception of vessels for safety, for repairing, and for commercial traffic. Those for the safety of vessels are known as wet-docks; those for repairing only, as dry-docks; and those for commercial traffic, as basins or docks. Wet and dry docks are floating or stationary, according to construction. Basins or docks are constructed over large areas, comprising docks for loading and unloading vessels, and convenient waterways for the movement of vessels. The most notable dry-docks in the United States are at Boston, Mass.; Portland, Me.; Norfolk, Va.; Savannah, Ga.; Mare Island, Cal.; Detroit, Mich.; and Puget Sound, Wash. The costliest of these are at the navy-yards. At New York City, as well as all the large ports, there are numerous floating dry-docks for the repair of the merchant marine. The most notable basins or docks for commercial traffic are in Brooklyn, N. Y., where over 4,000 vessels are annually unloaded. The chief of these is the Atlantic Docks, covering an area of 40 acres, and capable of accommodating 500 vessels at one time. South of this artificial construction are the Erie and Brooklyn basins, similar in design and purpose, and still further south are two other docks of the repair character.

The most remarkable floating dry-dock in the world is the *Dewey*, built by the Maryland Steel Company for the national government, which left Solomon's Island in Chesapeake Bay on Dec. 28, 1905, convoyed by the naval tug *Potomac* and the colliers *Cæsar* and *Brutus* and the refrigerator ship *Glacier*, and, after a towing voyage of more than 12,000 miles, arrived at its destination, Olongapo, Philippine Islands, on July 10, 1906. During its long journey, accomplished in 193 days, the *Dewey* twice broke loose from its companions, and naval authorities

were much concerned, especially as many experts doubted whether the trip could be made in safety. High praise was accorded Commander Harry H. Hosley for the skillful manner in which he conducted the unusual expedition. The first opportunity of testing the value of the *Dewey* as an equipment likely to promote fleet efficiency in time of war occurred between Nov. 28 and Dec. 3, 1909, when light-armored cruisers of the Pacific fleet were successfully docked and cleaned. On May 24, 1910, the great dry-dock suddenly sank at its moorings, and was refloated on June 29 following. Sensational causes of its sinking were freely circulated, but no official reason was given.

Dodge, GRENVILLE MELLEN, military officer; born in Danvers, Mass., April 12, 1831; educated at Partridge's Military Academy, Norwich, Conn., and became a railroad surveyor and engineer in Illinois, Iowa, and the Rocky Mountains. He was connected with the surveys of the Union Pacific Railway from 1835, and was its chief engineer from May, 1866, until after the road was completed. His surveys for the road extended from the Missouri River to the California State line. The road was built by him to Promontory, Utah, 53 miles west of Ogden, and was graded some 166 miles west of Promontory to the Humboldt Wells. As chief engineer of the Texas & Pacific Railway, he also made surveys and located the line on the 32d parallel from New Orleans to San Diego, Cal., and built the road from New Orleans to El Paso, Tex.

In 1861 he was sent to Washington to procure arms and equipment for Iowa volunteers, and became colonel of the 4th Iowa Regiment in July. He commanded a brigade on the extreme right at the battle of Pea Ridge, and was wounded. For his services there he was made brigadier-general. He was appointed to the command of the District of the Mississippi in June, 1862. He was with Sherman in his Georgia campaign, and was promoted to major-general. He finally commanded the 16th Corps in that campaign and in December, 1864, he succeeded Rosecrans in command of the Department of Missouri. In 1867-69 he was a member of Congress from Iowa; in 1898 was appointed a major-general of volunteers for the war with Spain, but declined; the same year became president of the special commission to inquire into the management of the war; and subsequently engaged in railroad business.

Dodge, HENRY, military officer; born in Vincennes, Ind., Oct. 12, 1782; commanded a company of volunteers in the War of 1812-15, and rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel of mounted infantry in 1814. He fought the Indians from 1832 to 1834, when he made peace on the frontiers, and in 1835 commanded an expedition to the Rocky Mountains. He was governor of Wisconsin and superintendent of Indian affairs from 1836 to 1841; a delegate in Congress from 1841 to 1845; and United States Senator from 1849 to 1857. He died in Burlington, Ia., June 19, 1867.

Dodge, RICHARD IRVING, military officer; born in Huntsville, N. C., May 19, 1827; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1848; served through the Civil War; was commissioned colonel of the 11th Infantry, June 26, 1882; retired May 19, 1891. His publications include *The Black Hills; The Plain of the Great West; Our Wild Indians,* etc. He died in Sackett's Harbor June 18, 1895.

Dodge, THEODORE AYRAULT, military historian; born in Springfield, Mass., May 28, 1842; graduated at London University in 1861; enlisted in the National army in 1861; promoted first lieutenant Feb. 13, 1862; brevetted colonel in 1866; retired in 1870. His numerous publications include *Bird's-Eye View of the Civil War; Campaign of Chancellorsville; Great Captains; History of the Art of War* (12 vols.), and many historical addresses and essays. He died in Versailles, France, Oct. 26, 1909.

Dodge, WILLIAM EARL, merchant; born in New York City, Feb. 15, 1832; entered a metal importing house which subsequently became widely known as the firm of Phelps, Dodge & Co.; acquired large lumber, real estate, railroad, and coal interests; took an active concern in all matters affecting the public welfare, and was a liberal patron of religious, educational, and charitable institutions. He died at Bar Harbor, Me., Aug. 9, 1903. A bronze statue of Mr. Dodge has been erected at

Broadway and Sixth Avenue, New York City.

Dolbear, AMOS EMERSON, physicist and inventor; born in Norwich, Conn., Nov. 10, 1837; was professor of physics at Tufts College in 1874–1906; author of *The Art of Projecting; The Speaking Telephone; Sound and Its Phenomena; Matter, Ether, and Motion,* etc. He claimed the invention of the writing telegraph, magneto and static telephones, spring-balance ammeter and the air-space telegraph cable, and the discovery of the convertibility of sound into electricity, wireless telegraphy, and photographing with electric waves. In noted suits with Professor Bell and William Marconi to establish the priority of discovery of the speaking telephone and wireless telegraphy he met with legal defeat, those near to him, however, declaring confidence in his claims and ascribing his defeat to his failure to protect himself in season through lack of business experience. He died in West Somerville, Mass., Feb. 23, 1910.

Dole, SANFORD BALLARD, statesman; born in Honolulu, Hawaii, April 23, 1844; son of American missionaries; educated at Oahu College, Hawaii, and Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.;

SANFORD BALLARD DOLE.

was admitted to the bar in Boston, and returned to Honolulu to practise. He was a member of the Hawaii legislature in 1884 and 1886; became active in the reform movement of 1887; was judge of the Supreme Court of Hawaii in 1887–93; was chosen chief of the provisional government in 1893, and in the following year was elected president under the constitution of the newly formed republic for the period of seven years. He was an active promoter of the movement for the annexation of Hawaii to the United States; was a member of the commission to recommend to Congress legislation concerning Hawaii; was governor of the Territory of Hawaii in 1900–03; then became United States district judge for Hawaii.

Dollar Diplomacy, a phrase applied in contempt to a form of foreign commercial policy having as its sole object the accumulation of dollars.

Dollar Exchange, the substitution of the United States gold dollar for the monetary units of the world to facilitate international commercial exchange, unsettled by the European war.

Domestic Relations, COURT OF. A tribunal established in New York City in 1910; believed to be the first of its kind in existence; designed to effect a settlement of domestic troubles and a reconciliation of estranged husbands and wives, in order to check constantly increasing divorce proceedings.

Dominion of Canada. See CANADA.

Donaldson, EDWARD, naval officer; born in Baltimore, Md., Nov. 17, 1816; joined the navy in 1835; during the Civil War he took part in the capture of New Orleans, the passage of Vicksburg, the battle of Mobile Bay, etc.; was promoted rear-admiral Sept. 21, 1876, and retired a few days later. He died in Baltimore, Md., May 15, 1889.

Donaldson, JAMES LOWRY, military officer; born in Baltimore, Md., March 7, 1814; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1836; served in the war with Mexico and through the Civil War; was promoted colonel and brevetted major-general of volunteers; resigned in January, 1874. It was his suggestion which led to the institution of Decoration or Memorial Day. He died in Baltimore, Md., Nov. 4, 1885.

Donation Lands. By act of Congress, Aug. 4, 1842, a quarter section of land in East Florida was granted to settlers who could bear arms. By act of Sept. 27, 1850, from 160 to 640 acres were granted to settlers in Oregon.

Donelson, ANDREW JACKSON, statesman; born in Nashville, Tenn., Aug. 25, 1800; graduated at West Point in 1820; resigned from the army in 1822; appointed minister to the republic of Texas in 1844; minister to Prussia in 1846; and to the Federal Government of Germany in 1848. He abandoned the Democratic party, joined the American party, and was its candidate for Vice-President on the ticket with Millard Fillmore in 1856. He died in Memphis, Tenn., June 26, 1871.

Donelson, FORT, a notable fortification on the Cumberland River in Tennessee, 63 miles northwest of Nashville. After the capture of FORT HENRY (*q. v.*), there was no hinderance to the river navy going up the Tennessee to the fertile cotton regions of the heart of the Confederacy. Foote sent Lieut.-Com. S. L. Phelps, with three vessels, to reconnoitre the borders of that river. They penetrated to Florence, Ala., seizing Confederate vessels and destroying Confederate property, and discovered the weakness of the Confederacy in all that region, for Unionism was everywhere prevalent, but suppressed by the mailed hand of the Confederate leaders. Phelps's report caused an immediate expedition against Fort Donelson, situated on the high left bank of the Cumberland River, at Dover, the capital of Stewart county, Tenn. It was formed chiefly of outlying intrenchments, covering about 100 acres, upon hills furrowed by ravines. At Fort Henry, General Grant reorganized his army in three divisions, under Generals McClernand, Smith, and Lew. Wallace. Commodore Foote returned to Cairo to take his mortar-boats up the Cumberland River to assist in the attack. On the morning of Feb. 12, 1862, the divisions of McClernand and Smith marched for Fort Donelson, leaving Wallace with a brigade to hold the vanquished forts on the Tennessee. On the same evening Fort Donelson was invested.

Grant resolved to wait for the arrival of the flotilla bearing troops that would complete Wallace's division before making the attack. General Pillow was in command of the fort; but, on the morning of the 13th, General Floyd arrived from Virginia with some troops and superseded him. They were assisted by GEN. SIMON B. BUCKNER (*q. v.*), a better soldier than either. All day (Feb. 13) there was skirmishing, and at night the weather became extremely cold, while a violent rain-storm

FORT DONELSON.

was falling. The National troops, bivouacking without tents, suffered intensely. They dared not light camp-fires, for they would expose them to the guns of their foes. They were without sufficient food and clothing. Perceiving the perils of his situation, Grant had sent for Wallace to bring over his troops. He arrived about noon on the 14th. The transports had arrived, and Wallace's division was completed and posted between those of McClernand and Smith, by which the thorough investment of the fort was completed. At three o'clock that afternoon the bombardment of the fort was begun by the *Carondelet*, Captain Walke, and she was soon joined by three others armored gunboats in the front line. A second line was formed of unarmored boats. The former were exposed to a tremendous pounding by missiles from the shore-batteries; and they were compelled to retire, after receiving 140 shots and having fifty-four men killed and wounded. Foote returned to Cairo to repair damages and to bring up a sufficient naval force to assist in carrying on the siege. Grant resolved to wait for the return of Foote and the arrival of reinforcements. But he was not allowed to wait.

On the night of the 14th the Confederate leaders held a council of war and it was concluded to make a sortie early the next morning, to rout or destroy the invading forces, or to cut through them and escape to the open country in the direction of Nashville. This was attempted at five o'clock (Feb. 15). The troops engaged in it were about 10,000 in number, commanded by Generals Pillow and Bushrod R. Johnson. They advanced from Dover—Mississippians, Tennesseeans, and Virginians — accompanied by Forrest's cavalry. The main body was directed to attack McClernand's division, who occupied the heights that reached to the river. Buckner was directed to strike Wallace's division, in the centre, at the same time, so that it might not be in a condition to help McClernand. These movements were not suspected by the Nationals, and so quick and vigorous was Pillow's attack that Grant's right wing was seriously menaced within twenty minutes after the sortie of the Confederates was known. The attack was quick, furious, and heavy. Oglesby's brigade received the first shock, but stood firm until their ammunition began to fail, when they gave way under the tremendous pressure, excepting the extreme left, held by Col. John A. Logan (*q. v.*), with his Illinois regiment. Imitating their commander, they stood as firmly as a wall, and prevented a panic and a rout. The light batteries of Taylor, McAllister, and Dresser, shifting positions and sending volleys of grape and canister, made the Confederate line recoil again and again. At eight o'clock McClernand's division was so hard pressed that he sent to Wallace for help. Wallace, being assigned to a special duty, could not comply without orders, for which he sent. Grant was away, in consultation with Commodore Foote, who had arrived.

Again McClernand sent for help, saying his flank was turned. Wallace took the responsibility. Then Buckner appeared. The battle raged fiercely. McClernand's line was falling back, in good order, and calling for ammunition. Wallace took the responsibility of ordering some up. Then he thrust his brigade (Colonel Thayer commanding) between the retiring troops and the advancing Confederates, flushed with hope, and formed a new line of battle across the road. Back of this was a reserve. In this position they awaited an attack, while McClernand's troops supplied themselves with ammunition from wagons which Wallace had ordered up. Just then the combined forces of Pillow and Buckner fell upon them and were repulsed by a battery and the 1st Nebraska. The Confederates, after a severe struggle, retired to their works in confusion. This was the last sally from the fort. "God bless you!" wrote Grant's aide the next day to Wallace, "you did save the day on the right."

It was now noon. Grant was in the field, and after consultation with McClernand and Wallace, he ordered the former to retake the hill he had lost. This was soon bravely done, and the troops bivouacked on the field of victory that cold winter night. Meanwhile, General Smith had been smiting the Confederates so vigorously on their right that, when night came on, they were imprisoned within their trenches, unable to escape. Finding themselves closely held by Grant, the

question, How shall we escape? was a paramount one in the minds of Floyd and Pillow. At midnight the three Confederate commanders held a private council, when it was concluded that the garrison must surrender. "*I* cannot surrender," said Floyd; "you know my position with the Federals; it won't do, it won't do." Pillow said, "I will not surrender myself nor my command; I will die first." "Then," said Buckner, coolly, "the surrender will devolve on me." Then Floyd said, "General, if you are put in command, will you allow me to take out, by the river, my brigade?" "If you will move before I surrender," Buckner replied. Floyd offered to surrender the command, first, to Pillow, who replied, "I will not accept it—I will never surrender." Buckner said, like a true soldier, "I will accept it, and share the fate of my command." Within an hour after the conference Floyd fled up the river with a part of his command, and Pillow sneaked away in the darkness and finally reached his home in Tennessee. The Confederates never gave him employment again. The next morning, the fort and 13,500 men were surrendered, and the spoils of victory were 3,000 horses, forty-eight field-pieces, seventeen heavy guns, 20,000 muskets, and a large quantity of military stores. During the siege the Confederates lost 237 killed and 1,000 wounded; the National loss was estimated at 446 killed, 1,755 wounded, and 152 made prisoners.

Dongan, THOMAS, colonial governor; born in Castletown, county Kildare, Ireland, in 1634; a younger son of an Irish baronet; was a colonel in the royal army, and served under the French King. In 1678 he was appointed lieutenant-governor of Tangier, Africa, whence he was recalled in 1680. The relations between England and France were then delicate, and Dongan being a Roman Catholic, like the proprietor of New York, he was chosen by Duke James governor of that province (1683), as it was thought his experience in France might make it easier to keep up friendly relations with the French on the borders. Dongan caused a company of merchants in New York to be formed for the management of the fisheries at Pemaquid, a part of the duke's domain, and he took measures to protect the territory from encroachments. Dongan managed the relations between the English, French, and Indians with dexterity. He was not deceived by the false professions of the French rulers or the wiles of the Jesuit priests; and when DE NONVILLE (*q. v.*) invaded the country of the Five Nations (1686) he showed himself as bold as this leader in defence of the rights of Englishmen. Dongan sympathized with the people of his province in their aspirations for liberty, which his predecessor (Andros) had denied; and he was instrumental in the formation of the first General Assembly of New York, and in obtaining a popular form of government. When the King violated his promises while he was duke, Dongan was grieved, and protested; and when the monarch ordered him to introduce French priests among the Five Nations, the enlightened governor resisted the measure as dangerous to English power on the continent. His firmness in defence of the rights of the people and the safety of the English colonies in America against what he could not but regard as the treachery of the King finally offended his sovereign, and he was dismissed from office in the spring of 1688, when Andros took his place, bearing a vice-regal commission to rule all New England besides. Dongan remained in the province until persecuted by Leisler in 1690, when he withdrew to Boston. He died in London, England, Dec. 14, 1715.

On May 24, 1901, eight loose sheets of parchment, containing the engrossed acts passed during 1687–88, and bearing the signature of Thomas Dongan as governor of the province of New York, were restored to the State of New York by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. This interesting historical find was accounted for on the presumption that the documents had formed a part of the archives of Massachusetts since the time of Sir Edmund Andros, and the fact that they related to the province of New York had been entirely overlooked.

The dates and titles of the Dongan acts are:

March 17, 1686–87.—An Act to Prevent Frauds and Abuses in the County of Suffolk.

June 17, 1687.—An Act for Raising ½*d.* per Pound on All Real Estates.

Aug. 20, 1687.—A Bill for Raising 1*d.* per Pound on All Persons, Estates, etc.

Sept. 2, 1687.—An Act for Raising ½*d.* per Pound on All Persons, Estates, etc.

Sept. 2, 1687.—An Act for Regulating the Collection of His Majesty's Excise.

Sept. 27, 1687.—An Act for Naturalizing Daniel Duchemin.

Oct. 11, 1687.—A Bill to Prevent Frauds in His Majesty's Excise by Ordinary Keepers.

May 17, 1688.—An Act for Raising £2,555 6*s.* on or before the First Day of November, 1688. See NEW YORK.

Dongan Charter, THE. See NEW YORK CITY.

Doniphan, ALEXANDER WILLIAM, military officer; born in Kentucky, July 9, 1808; graduated at Augusta College in 1826; admitted to the bar in 1830. In addition to his legal studies he was interested in military matters and became brigadier-general in the Missouri State militia. In 1838 he compelled the MORMONS (*q. v.*), under Joseph Smith, to give up their leaders for trial, lay down their arms, and leave the State. In 1846 he entered the United States service as colonel of the 1st Missouri Regiment; in December of that year he defeated a superior force of Mexicans at BRACETI RIVER (*q. v.*); two days later he occupied El Paso. In February, 1847, with less than 1,000 men, after a march of over 200 miles through a sterile country, he met a force of 4,000 Mexicans at the pass of Sacramento. He attacked with such vigor that the Mexicans were soon overpowered, having lost over 800 in killed and wounded, Doniphan's own loss being one man killed, eleven wounded. He subsequently marched 700 miles through a hostile country until he reached Saltillo. He died in Richmond, Mo., Aug. 8, 1887.

Donkin, ROBERT, military officer; born March 19, 1727; joined the British army in 1746; served through the Revolutionary War, first as aide-de-camp to General Gage, and then as major of the 44th Regiment. He published *Military Collections and Remarks,* "published for the benefit of the children and widows of the valiant soldiers inhumanly and wantonly butchered when peacefully marching to and from Concord, April 19, 1775, by the rebels." He died near Bristol, England, in March, 1821.

Donnelly, IGNATIUS, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 3, 1831; removed to Minnesota in 1856; elected lieutenant-governor of the State in 1859 and 1861; Representative in Congress, 1863–69; president of the State Farmers' Alliance of Minnesota for several years; nominee of the Anti-Fusion People's party for Vice-President of the United States in 1900. He was the author of *Atlantis, the Antediluvian World; The Great Cryptogram,* in which he undertook to prove by a word cipher that Francis Bacon was the author of Shakespeare's plays; *The American People's Money,* etc. He died in Minneapolis, Minn., Jan. 2, 1901.

Donnohue, DILLIARD C., lawyer; born in Montgomery county, Ky., Nov. 20, 1814; was appointed a special commissioner to Haiti in 1863 to investigate the practicability of colonizing the slaves of the South in that republic after their freedom. Both President Lincoln and Secretary Seward favored this plan, but the report of Mr. Donnohue showed that it would not be feasible. He died in Greencastle, Ind., April 2, 1898.

Donop, CARL EMIL KURT VON, military officer; born in Germany, in 1740; was in command of a detachment of mercenary Hessian troops during the early part of the Revolutionary War. On Oct. 22, 1777, while leading a charge against Fort Mercer, at Red Bank, N. J., he was mortally wounded, and died on the 25th.

Doolittle, AMOS, engraver; born in Cheshire, Conn., in 1754; was self-educated; served an apprenticeship with a silversmith; and established himself as an engraver on copper in 1775. While a volunteer in the camp at Cambridge (1775) he visited the scene of the skirmish at Lexington and made a drawing and engraving of the affair, which furnishes the historian with the only correct representation of the buildings around the "Green" at that time. He afterwards made other historical prints of the time. He died in New Haven, Conn., Jan. 31, 1832.

Dorchester Heights, an elevation, now in Boston, which, on March 4, 1776, was

occupied by the Americans, who threw up strong intrenchments during the night. This movement had much to do with the evacuation of Boston by the British on March 17 following.

Dornin, THOMAS ALOYSIUS, naval officer; born in Ireland about 1800; entered the United States navy in 1815; prevented William Walker's expedition from invading Mexico in 1851; later sailed to Mazatlan and secured the release of forty Americans there held as prisoners; afterwards captured two slavers with more than 1,400 slaves, and took them to Liberia; was promoted commodore and retired during the Civil War. He died in Norfolk, Va., April 22, 1874.

Dorr, THOMAS WILSON, politician; born in Providence, R. I., Nov. 5, 1805; graduated at Harvard in 1823; studied law with Chancellor Kent; and began its practice in 1827. He is chiefly conspicuous in American history as the chosen governor of what was called the "Suffrage party," and attempted to take the place of what was deemed to be the legal State government (see RHODE ISLAND). He was tried for and convicted of high treason, and sentenced to imprisonment for life in 1842, but was pardoned in 1847; and in 1853 the legislature restored to him his civil rights and ordered the record of his sentence to be expunged. He lived to see his party triumph. He died in Providence, Dec. 27, 1854.

Dorr's Rebellion. See DORR, THOMAS WILSON; RHODE ISLAND.

Dorsey, STEPHEN WALLACE, politician; born in Benson, Vt., Feb. 28, 1842; received a common-school education; removed to Oberlin, O.; served in the Civil War in the National army; was elected president of the Arkansas Central Railway; removed to Arkansas; chosen chairman of the Republican State Committee; was United States Senator in 1873–79; was twice tried for complicity in the STAR ROUTE FRAUDS (*q. v.*), the second trial resulting in a verdict of not guilty.

Doty, JAMES DUANE, governor; born in Salem, N. Y., in 1799; studied law and settled in Detroit; member of the Michigan legislature in 1834, and there introduced the bill which provided for the division of Michigan and the establishment of the Territories of Iowa and Wisconsin. He aided in founding Madison, Wis., which city was made the capital of the State through his efforts. He held a seat in Congress in 1836–41 and 1849–53; governor of Wisconsin in 1841–44; and was appointed governor of Utah in 1864. He died in Salt Lake City, Ut., June 13, 1865.

Doubleday, ABNER, military officer; born in Ballston Spa, N. Y., June 26, 1819; graduated at West Point in 1842;

ABNER DOUBLEDAY.

served in the artillery in the war with Mexico; rose to captain in 1855; and served against the Seminole Indians in 1856–58. Captain Doubleday was an efficient officer in Fort Sumter with Major Anderson during the siege. He fired the first gun (April 12, 1861) upon the Confederates from that fort. On May 14 he was promoted to major, and on Feb. 3, 1862, to brigadier-general of volunteers. In Hooker's corps, at the battle of Antietam, he commanded a division; and when Reynolds fell at Gettysburg, Doubleday took command of his corps. He had been made major-general in November, 1862, and had been conspicuously engaged in the battles of Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville. He was brevetted brigadier-general and major-general of the United States army in March, 1865; was commissioned colonel of the 35th Infantry in September, 1867; and was retired in December, 1873. He died in Mendham, N. J., Jan. 26, 1893.

General Doubleday was author of *Reminiscences of Forts Sumter and Moultrie in 1860–61; Chancellorsville and Gettysburg*, and other military works.

Doughfaces. During the great debate on the slavery question in 1820, elicited by proceedings in relation to the admission of Missouri as a free-labor or slave-labor State, eighteen Northern men were induced to vote for a sort of compromise, by which the striking out the prohibition of slavery from the Missouri bill was carried by 90 to 87. John Randolph, who denounced the compromise as a "dirty bargain," also denounced these eighteen Northern representatives as "doughfaces"—plastic in the hands of expert demagogues. The epithet was at once adopted into the political vocabulary of the republic, wherein it remains.

Douglas, Sir Charles, naval officer; born in Scotland; joined the British navy; was placed in command of the fleet sent to the Gulf of St. Lawrence at the beginning of the Revolutionary War. Early in 1776 he relieved Quebec, then under siege by the Americans, after a difficult voyage through the drifting ice of the river. He introduced locks in lieu of matches for firing guns on board ships; and was promoted rear-admiral in 1787. He died in 1789.

DOUGLAS, STEPHEN ARNOLD

Douglas, Stephen Arnold, statesman; born in Brandon, Vt., April 23, 1813; learned the business of cabinet-making; studied law; became an auctioneer's clerk in Jacksonville, Ill.; and taught school until admitted to the bar, when he soon became an active politician. Because of his small stature and power of intellect and speech he was called "The Little Giant." He was attorney-general of Illinois in 1835; was in the legislature; chosen secretary of state in 1840; judge in 1841; and was in Congress in 1843–47. He was a vigorous promoter of the war with Mexico, and was United States Senator from 1847 to 1861. He advanced and supported the doctrine of popular sovereignty in relation to slavery in the Territories, and was the author of the Kansas-Nebraska bill (see Kansas); and in 1856 was a rival of Buchanan for the nomination for the Presidency. He took sides in favor of freedom in Kansas, and so became involved in controversy with President Buchanan. He was a candidate of the Democratic party in 1860 for President of the United States, but was defeated by Abraham Lincoln. He died in Chicago, Ill., June 3, 1861. See Kansas.

The Douglas-Lincoln Debate.—In opening this famous debate, in Ottawa, Ill., on Aug. 21, 1858, Mr. Douglas spoke as follows:

Ladies and Gentlemen,—I appear before you to-day for the purpose of discussing the leading political topics which now agitate the public mind. By an arrangement between Mr. Lincoln and myself, we are present here to-day for the purpose of having a joint discussion, as the representatives of the two great political parties of the State and Union, upon the principles in issue between those parties; and this vast concourse of people shows the deep feeling which pervades the public mind in regard to the questions dividing us.

Prior to 1854, this country was divided into two great political parties, known as the Whig and Democratic parties. Both were national and patriotic, advocating principles that were universal in their application. An old-line Whig could proclaim his principles in Louisiana and Massachusetts alike. Whig principles had no boundary sectional line: they were not limited by the Ohio River, nor by the Potomac, nor by the line of the free and slave States, but applied and were proclaimed wherever the Constitution ruled or the American flag waved over the American soil. So it was and so it is with the great Democratic party, which, from the days of Jefferson until this period, has proven itself to be the historic party of this nation. While the Whig and Democratic parties differed in regard to a bank, the tariff, distribution, the specie circular, and the sub-treasury, they agreed on the great slavery question which now agitates the Union. I say that the Whig party and the Democratic party

STEPHEN ARNOLD DOUGLAS.

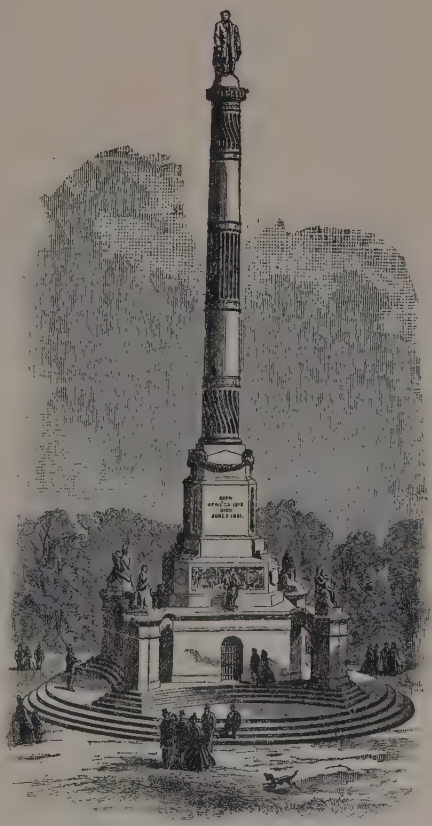
agreed on the slavery question, while they differed on those matters of expediency to which I have referred. The Whig party and the Democratic party jointly adopted the compromise measures of 1850 as the basis of a proper and just solution of the slavery question in all its forms. Clay was the great leader, with Webster on his right and Cass on his left, and sustained by the patriots in the Whig and Democratic ranks who had devised and enacted the compromise measures of 1850.

In 1851 the Whig party and the Democratic party united in Illinois in adopting resolutions endorsing and approving the principles of the compromise measures of 1850 as the proper adjustment of that question. In 1852, when the Whig party assembled in convention at Baltimore for the purpose of nominating a candidate for the Presidency, the first thing it did was to declare the compromise measures of 1850, in substance and in principle, a suitable adjustment of that question. [Here the speaker was interrupted by loud and long-continued applause.] My friends, silence will be more acceptable to me in the discussion of these questions than applause. I desire to address myself to your judgment, your understanding, and your consciences, and not to your passions or your enthusiasm. When the Democratic convention assembled in Baltimore in the same year, for the purpose of nominating a Democratic candidate for the Presidency, it also adopted the compromise measures of 1850 as the basis of Democratic action. Thus you see that up to 1853–54 the Whig party and the Democratic party both stood on the same platform with regard to the slavery question

That platform was the right of the people of each State and each Territory to decide their local and domestic institutions for themselves, subject only to the federal Constitution.

During the session of Congress of 1853–54 I introduced into the Senate of the United States a bill to organize the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska on that principle which had been adopted in the compromise measures of 1850, approved by the Whig party and the Democratic party in Illinois in 1851, and endorsed by the Whig party and the Democratic party in national convention in 1852. In order that there might be no misunderstanding in relation to the principle involved in the Kansas and Nebraska bill, I put forth the true intent and meaning of the act in these words: "It is the true intent and meaning of this act not to legislate slavery into any State or Territory, or to exclude it therefrom, but to leave the people thereof perfectly free to form and regulate their domestic institutions in their own way, subject only to the federal Constitution." Thus you see that up to 1854, when the Kansas and Nebraska bill was brought into Congress for the purpose of carrying out the principles which both parties had up to that time endorsed and approved, there had been no division in this country in regard to that principle except the opposition of the abolitionists. In the House of Representatives of the Illinois legislature, upon a resolution asserting that principle, every Whig and every Democrat in the House voted in the affirmative, and only four men voted against it, and those four were old-line abolitionists.

In 1854 Mr. Abraham Lincoln and Mr. Lyman Trumbull entered into an arrangement, one with the other, and each with his respective friends, to dissolve the old Whig party on the one hand, and to dissolve the old Democratic party on the other, and to connect the members of both into an abolition party, under the name and disguise of a Republican party. The terms of that arrangement between Lincoln and Trumbull have been published by Lincoln's special friend, James H. Matheny, Esq.; and they were that Lincoln should have General Shields's place in the United States Senate, which was then about to become vacant, and that Trumbull should have my seat when my term expired. Lincoln went to work to abolitionize the Old Whig party all over the State, pretending that he was then as good a Whig as ever; and Trumbull went to work in his part of the State preaching abolitionism in its milder and lighter form, and trying to abolitionize the Democratic party, and bring old Democrats handcuffed and bound hand and foot into the abolition camp. In pursuance of the arrangement the parties met at Springfield in October, 1854, and proclaimed their new platform. Lincoln was to bring into the abolition camp the old-line Whigs, and transfer them over to Giddings, Chase, Fred Douglass, and Par-



MONUMENT TO STEPHEN A DOUGLAS.

son Lovejoy, who were ready to receive them and christen them in their new faith. They laid down on that occasion a platform for their new Republican party, which was thus to be constructed. I have the resolutions of the State convention then held, which was the first mass State convention ever held in Illinois by the Black Republican party; and I now hold them in my hands and will read a part of them, and cause the others to be printed. Here are the most important and material resolutions of this abolition platform:

"1. *Resolved,* That we believe this truth to be self-evident, that, when parties become subversive of the ends for which they are established, or incapable of restoring the government to the true principles of the Constitution, it is the right and duty of the people to dissolve the political bands by which they may have been connected therewith, and to organize new parties upon such principles and with such views as the circumstances and the exigencies of the nation may demand.

"2. *Resolved,* That the times imperatively demand the reorganization of parties, and, repudiating all previous party attachments, names, and predilections, we unite ourselves together in defence of the liberty and Constitution of the country, and will hereafter co-operate as the Republican party, pledged to the accomplishment of the following purposes: to bring the administration of the government back to the control of first principles; to restore Nebraska and Kansas to the position of free Territories; that, as the Constitution of the United States vests in the States, and not in Congress, the power to legislate for the extradition of fugitives from labor, to repeal and entirely abrogate the fugitive-slave law; to restrict slavery to those States in which it exists; to prohibit the admission of any more slave States into the Union; to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia; to exclude slavery from all the Territories over which the general government has exclusive jurisdiction; and to resist the acquirement of any more Territories unless the practice of slavery therein forever shall have been prohibited.

"3. *Resolved,* That in furtherance of these principles we will use such constitutional and lawful means as shall seem best adapted to their accomplishment, and that we will support no man for office, under the general or State government, who is not positively and fully committed to the support of these principles, and whose personal character and conduct is not a guarantee that he is reliable, and who shall not have abjured old party allegiance and ties.

Now, gentlemen, your Black Republicans have cheered every one of those propositions; and yet I venture to say that you cannot get Mr. Lincoln to come out and say that he is now in favor of each one of them. That these propositions, one and all, constitute the platform of the Black Republican party of this day, I have no doubt; and, when you were not aware for what purpose I was reading them, your Black Republicans cheered them as good Black Republican doctrines. My object in reading these resolutions was to put the question to Abraham Lincoln this day, whether he now stands and will stand by each article in that creed, and carry it out.

I desire to know whether Mr. Lincoln to-day stands as he did in 1854, in favor of the unconditional repeal of the fugitive-slave law. I desire him to answer whether he stands pledged to-day, as he did in 1854, against the admission of any more slave States into the Union, even if the people want them. I want to know whether he stands pledged against the admission of a new State into the Union with such a constitution as the people of that State may see fit to make. I want to know whether he stands to-day pledged to the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. I desire him to answer whether he stands pledged to the prohibition of the slave-trade between the different States. I desire to know whether he stands pledged to prohibit slavery in all the Territories of the United States, north as well as south of the Missouri Compromise line. I desire him to answer whether he is opposed to the acquisition of any more territory unless slavery is prohibited therein. I want his answer to these questions. Your affirmative cheers in favor of this abolition platform are not satisfactory. I ask Abraham Lincoln to answer these questions, in order that, when I trot him down to lower Egypt, I may put the same questions to him. My principles are the same everywhere. I can proclaim them alike in the North, the South, the East, and the West. My principles will apply wherever the Constitution prevails and the American flag waves. I desire to know whether Mr. Lincoln's principles will bear transplanting from Ottawa to Jonesboro? I put these questions to him to-day distinctly, and ask an answer. I have a right to an

answer; for I quote from the platform of the Republican party, made by himself and others at the time that party was formed, and the bargain made by Lincoln to dissolve and kill the Old Whig party, and transfer its members, bound hand and foot, to the abolition party, under the direction of Giddings and Fred Douglass. In the remarks I have made on this platform, and the position of Mr. Lincoln upon it, I mean nothing personally disrespectful or unkind to that gentleman. I have known him for nearly twenty-five years. There were many points of sympathy between us when we first got acquainted. We were both comparatively boys, and both struggling with poverty in a strange land. I was a school-teacher in the town of Winchester, and he a flourishing grocery-keeper in the town of Salem. He was more successful in his occupation than I was in mine, and hence more fortunate in this world's goods.

Lincoln is one of those peculiar men who perform with admirable skill everything which they undertake. I made as good a school-teacher as I could, and, when a cabinet-maker, I made a good bedstead and tables, although my old boss said I succeeded better with bureaus and secretaries than with anything else! but I believe that Lincoln was always more successful in business than I, for his business enabled him to get into the legislature. I met him there, however, and had sympathy with him, because of the uphill struggle we both had in life. He was then just as good at telling an anecdote as now. He could beat any of the boys wrestling or running a foot-race, in pitching quoits or tossing a copper; could ruin more liquor than all the boys of the town together; and the dignity and impartiality with which he presided at a horse-race or fist-fight excited the admiration and won the praise of everybody that was present and participated. I sympathized with him because he was struggling with difficulties, and so was I. Mr. Lincoln served with me in the legislature in 1836, when we both retired; and he subsided or became submerged, and he was lost sight of as a public man for some years. In 1846, when Wilmot introduced his celebrated proviso, and the abolition tornado swept over the country, Lincoln again turned up as a member of Congress from the Sangamon district. I was then in the Senate of the United States, and was glad to welcome my old friend and companion. While in Congress, he distinguished himself by his opposition to the Mexican War, taking the side of the common enemy against his own country; and, when he returned home, he found that the indignation of the people followed him everywhere, and he was again submerged, or obliged to retire into private life, forgotten by his former friends. He came up again in 1854, just in time to make this abolition or Black Republican platform, in company with Giddings, Lovejoy, Chase, and Fred Douglass, for the Republican party to stand upon. Trumbull, too, was one of our own contemporaries. He was born and raised in old Connecticut, was bred a Federalist, but, removing to Georgia, turned nullifier when nullification was popular, and, as soon as he disposed of his clocks and wound up his business, migrated to Illinois, turned politician and lawyer here, and made his appearance in 1841 as a member of the legislature. He became noted as the author of the scheme to repudiate a large portion of the State debt of Illinois, which, if successful, would have brought infamy and disgrace upon the fair escutcheon of our glorious State. The odium attached to that measure consigned him to oblivion for a time. I helped to do it. I walked into a public meeting in the hall of the House of Representatives, and replied to his repudiating speeches, and resolutions were carried over his head denouncing repudiation, and asserting the moral and legal obligation of Illinois to pay every dollar of the debt she owed and every bond that bore her seal. Trumbull's malignity has followed me since I thus defeated his infamous scheme.

These two men, having formed this combination to abolitionize the Old Whig party and the old Democratic party, and put themselves into the Senate of the United States, in pursuance of their bargain, are now carrying out that arrangement. Matheny states that Trumbull broke faith; that the bargain was that

Lincoln should be the Senator in Shields's place, and Trumbull was to wait for mine; and the story goes that Trumbull cheated Lincoln, having control of four or five abolitionized Democrats who were holding over in the Senate. He would not let them vote for Lincoln, which obliged the rest of the abolitionists to support him in order to secure an abolition Senator. There are a number of authorities for the truth of this besides Matheny, and I suppose that even Mr. Lincoln will not deny.

Mr. Lincoln demands that he shall have the place intended for Trumbull, as Trumbull cheated him and got his; and Trumbull is stumping the State, traducing me for the purpose of securing the position for Lincoln, in order to quiet him. It was in consequence of this arrangement that the Republican convention was impanelled to instruct for Lincoln and nobody else; and it was on this account that they passed resolutions that he was their first, their last, and their only choice. Archy Williams was nowhere. Browning was nobody, Wentworth was not to be considered; they had no man in the Republican party for the place except Lincoln, for the reason that he demanded that they should carry out the arrangement.

Having formed this new party for the benefit of deserters from Whiggery and deserters from Democracy, and having laid down the abolition platform which I have read, Lincoln now takes his stand and proclaims his abolition doctrines. Let me read a part of them. In his speech at Springfield to the convention which nominated him for the Senate he said:

"In my opinion, it will not cease until a crisis shall have been reached and passed. 'A house divided against itself cannot stand.' I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved—I do not expect the house to fall—but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other. Either the opponents of slavery will arrest the further spread of it, and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in the course of ultimate extinction, or its advocates will push it forward till it shall become alike lawful in all the States—old as well as new, North as well as South." ["Good, "Good," and cheers.]

I am delighted to hear you Black Republicans say, "Good." I have no doubt that doctrine expresses your sentiments; and I will prove to you now, if you will listen to me, that it is revolutionary and destructive of the existence of this government. Mr. Lincoln, in the extract from which I have read, says that this government cannot endure permanently in the same condition in which it was made by its framers—divided into free and slave States. He says that it has existed for about seventy years thus divided, and yet he tells you that it cannot endure permanently on the same principles and in the same relative condition in which our fathers made it. Why can it not exist divided into free and slave States? Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, Madison, Hamilton, Jay, and the great men of that day made this government divided into free States and slave States, and left each State perfectly free to do as it pleased on the subject of slavery. Why can it not exist on the same principles on which our fathers made it? They knew when they framed the Constitution that in a country as wide and broad as this, with such a variety of climate, production, and interest, the people necessarily required different laws and institutions in different localities. They knew that the laws and regulations which would suit the granite hills of New Hampshire would be unsuited to the rice plantations of South Carolina; and they therefore provided that each State should retain its own legislature and its own sovereignty, with the full and complete power to do as it pleased within its own limits, in all that was local and not national. One of the reserved rights of the States was the right to regulate the relations between master and servant, on the slavery question. At the time the Constitution was framed there were thirteen States in the Union, twelve of which were slave-holding States, and one a free State. Suppose this doctrine of uniformity preached by Mr. Lincoln, that the States should all be free or all be slave, had prevailed; and what would have been the result? Of course, the twelve slave-holding States would have overruled the one free State; and slavery would have been fastened by a constitutional provision on every inch

of the American republic, instead of being left, as our fathers wisely left it, to each State to decide for itself. Here I assert that uniformity in the local laws and institutions of the different States is neither possible nor desirable. If uniformity had been adopted when the government was established, it must inevitably have been the unformity of slavery everywhere, or else the uniformity of negro citizenship and negro equality everywhere.

We are told by Lincoln that he is utterly opposed to the Dred Scott decision, and will not submit to it, for the reason that he says it deprives the negro of the rights and privileges of citizenship. That is the first and main reason which he assigns for his warfare on the Supreme Court of the United States and its decision. I ask you, Are you in favor of conferring upon the negro the rights and privileges of citizenship? Do you desire to strike out of our State constitution that clause which keeps slaves and free negroes out of the State, and allow the free negroes to flow in, and cover your prairies with black settlements? Do you desire to turn this beautiful State into a free negro colony, in order that, when Missouri abolishes slavery, she can send 100,000 emancipated slaves into Illinois, to become citizens and voters, on an equality with yourseives? If you desire negro citizenship, if you desire to allow them to come into the State and settle with the white man, if you desire them to vote on an equality with yourselves, and to make them eligible to office, to serve on juries, and to adjudge your rights, then support Mr. Lincoln and the Black Republican party, who are in favor of the citizenship of the negro. For one, I am opposed to negro citizenship in any and every form. I believe this government was made on the white basis. I believe it was made by white men, for the benefit of white men and their posterity forever; and I am in favor of confining citizenship to white men, men of European birth and descent, instead of conferring it upon negroes, Indians, and other inferior races.

Mr. Lincoln, following the example and lead of all the little abolition orators who go around and lecture in the basements of schools and churches, reads from the Declaration of Independence that all men were created equal, and then asks how can you deprive a negro of that equality which God and the Declaration of Independence award to him? He and they maintain that negro equality is guaranteed by the laws of God, and that it is asserted in the Declaration of Independence. If they think so, of course they have a right to say so, and so vote. I do not question Mr. Lincoln's conscientious belief that the negro was made his equal, and hence is his brother; but, for my own part, I do not regard the negro as my equal, and positively deny that he is my brother or any kin to me whatever. Lincoln has evidently learned by heart Parson Lovejoy's catechism. He can repeat it as well as Farnsworth, and he is worthy of a medal from Father Giddings and Fred Douglass for his abolitionism. He holds that the negro was born his equal and yours, and that he was endowed with equality by the Almighty, and that no human law can deprive him of these rights which were guaranteed to him by the Supreme Ruler of the universe. Now I do not believe that the Almighty ever intended the negro to be the equal of the white man. If he did, he has been a long time demonstrating the fact. For thousands of years the negro has been a race upon the earth; and during all that time, in all latitudes and climates, wherever he has wandered or been taken, he has been inferior to the race which he has there met. He belongs to an inferior race, and must always occupy an inferior position. I do not hold that, because the negro is our inferior, therefore he ought to be a slave. By no means can such a conclusion be drawn from what I have said. On the contrary, I hold that humanity and Christianity both require that the negro shall have and enjoy every right, every privilege, and every immunity consistent with the safety of the society in which he lives. On that point, I presume, there can be no diversity of opinion. You and I are bound to extend to our inferior and dependent beings every right, every privilege, every facility, and immunity consistent with the public good. The question then arises, What rights and privileges are consistent with the public good? This

is a question which each State and each Territory must decide for itself. Illinois has decided it for herself. We have provided that the negro shall not be a slave; and we have also provided that he shall not be a citizen, but protect him in his civil rights, in his life, his person, and his property, only depriving him of all political rights whatsoever, and refusing to put him on an equality with the white man. That policy of Illinois is satisfactory to the Democratic party and to me, and, if it were to the Republicans, there would then be no question upon the subject; but the Republicans say that he ought to made a citizen, and, when he becomes a citizen, he becomes your equal, with all your rights and privileges. They assert the Dred Scott decision to be monstrous because it denies that the negro is or can be a citizen under the Constitution.

Now I hold that Illinois had a right to abolish and prohibit slavery as she did, and I hold that Kentucky has the same right to continue and protect slavery that Illinois had to abolish it. I hold that New York had as much right to abolish slavery as Virginia had to continue it, and that each and every State of this Union is a sovereign power, with the right to do as it pleases upon this question of slavery and upon all its domestic institutions. Slavery is not the only question which comes up in this controversy. There is a far more important one to you; and that is, What shall be done with the free negro? We have settled the slavery question as far as we are concerned: we have prohibited it in Illinois forever, and, in doing so, I think we have done wisely, and there is no man in the State who would be more strenuous in his opposition to the introduction of slavery than I would; but, when we settled it for ourselves, we exhausted all our power over that subject. We have done our whole duty, and can do no more. We must leave each and every other State to decide for itself the same question. In relation to the policy to be pursued towards the free negroes, we have said that they shall not vote; while Maine, on the other hand, has said that they shall vote. Maine is a sovereign State, and has the power to regulate the qualifications of voters within her limits. I would never consent to confer the right of voting and of citizenship upon a negro, but still I am not going to quarrel with Maine for differing from me in opinion. Let Maine take care of her own negroes, and fix the qualifications of her own voters to suit herself, without interfering with Illinois; and Illinois will not interfere with Maine. So with the State of New York. She allows the negro to vote provided he owns two hundred and fifty dollars' worth of property, but not otherwise. While I would not make any distinction whatever between a negro who held property and one who did not, yet, if the sovereign State of New York chooses to make that distinction, it is her business, and not mine; and I will not quarrel with her for it. She can do as she pleases on this question if she minds her own business, and we will do the same thing. Now, my friends, if we will only act conscientiously and rigidly upon this great principle of popular sovereignty, which guarantees to each State and Territory the right to do as it pleases on all things local and domestic, instead of Congress interfering, we will continue at peace one with another. Why should Illinois be at war with Missouri, or Kentucky with Ohio, or Virginia with New York, merely because their institutions differ? Our fathers intended that our institutions should differ. They knew that the North and the South, having different climates, productions, and interests, required different institutions. This doctrine of Mr. Lincoln, of uniformity among the institutions of the different States, is a new doctrine, never dreamed of by Washington, Madison, or the framers of this government. Mr. Lincoln and the Republican party set themselves up as wiser than these men who made this government, which has flourished for seventy years under the principle of popular sovereignty, recognizing the right of each State to do as it pleased. Under that principle, we have grown from a nation of 3,000,000 or 4,000,000 to a nation of about 30,000,000 people. We have crossed the Alleghany Mountains and filled up the whole Northwest, turning the prairie into a garden, and building up churches and schools, thus spreading

civilization and Christianity where before there was nothing but savage barbarism. Under that principle we have become, from a feeble nation, the most powerful on the face of the earth; and, if we only adhere to that principle, we can go forward increasing in territory, in power, in strength, and in glory until the republic of America shall be the north star that shall guide the friends of freedom throughout the civilized world. And why can we not adhere to the great principle of self-government upon which our institutions were originally based? I believe that this new doctrine preached by Mr. Lincoln and his party will dissolve the Union if it succeeds. They are trying to array all the Northern States in one body against the South, to excite a sectional war between the free States and the slave States, in order that the one or the other may be driven to the wall.

For Mr. Lincoln's reply, see LINCOLN, ABRAHAM.

Douglas, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Plainfield, Conn., Jan. 17, 1742; served in the French and Indian War, and was present at the surrender of Quebec. He recruited a company at the beginning of the Revolutionary War and accompanied Montgomery in the expedition against Canada. He participated in the unfortunate campaign which ended in the fall of New York, and greatly distinguished himself in the engagements on Long Island and Harlem Plains. He died in Northford, Conn., May 28, 1777.

Douglass, FREDERICK, diplomatist; born in Tuckahoe, Talbot co., Md., in February, 1817; was a mulatto, the son of a slave mother; lived in Baltimore after he was ten years of age, and secretly taught himself to read and write. Endowed with great natural moral and intellectual ability, he fled from slavery at the age of twenty-one years, and, going to New Bedford, married, and supported himself by day-labor on the wharves and in workshops. In 1841 he spoke at an anti-slavery convention at Nantucket, and soon afterwards was made the agent of the Massachusetts Anti-slavery Society. He lectured extensively in New England, and, going to Great Britain, spoke in nearly all the large towns in that country on the subject of slavery. On his return, in 1847, he began the publication, at Rochester, N. Y., of the *North Star* (afterwards *Frederick Douglass's Paper*). In 1870 he

FREDERICK DOUGLASS.

became editor of the *National Era* at Washington City; in 1871 was appointed assistant secretary of the commission to Santo Domingo; then became one of the Territorial Council of the District of Columbia; in 1876–81 was United States marshal for the District; in 1881–86 was recorder of deeds there; and in 1889–91 was United States minister to Haiti. He was author of *Narrative of My Experiences in Slavery* (1844); *My Bondage and My Freedom* (1855); and *Life and Times of Frederick Douglass* (1881). He died near Washington, D. C., Feb. 20, 1895.

Dow, LORENZO, clergyman; born in Coventry, Conn., Oct. 16, 1777; was ordained in the Methodist ministry; went as a missionary to Ireland in 1799 and 1805; introduced camp-meetings into England; and through a discussion which resulted from these the Primitive Methodist Church was organized. On account of his eccentricities he was nicknamed "Crazy Dow." He died in Georgetown, D. C., Feb. 2, 1834.

Dow, NEAL, reformer; born in Portland, Me., March 20, 1804. From the time he was a boy he was noted for his zeal in the temperance cause, and was one of the founders of the Prohibition party. In 1851 he drafted the famous

prohibitory law of Maine, and was elected mayor of Portland in 1851 and 1854. In the Civil War he was commissioned colonel of the 13th Maine Volunteers; was promoted to brigadier-general; and was a prisoner of war at Mobile and in Libby prison. In 1880 he was the candidate of the Prohibition party for President, and in 1894 temperance organizations throughout the world observed his ninetieth birthday. He died in Portland, Me., Oct. 2, 1897.

Dowie, JOHN ALEXANDER, adventurer; born in Scotland. At one time a pastor in Australia, he afterwards went to Chicago, Ill., and became a "healer," real-estate operator, newspaper proprietor, and manufacturer. He founded a lace-making industry near Waukegan, Ill. The place was called "Zion" and his followers "Zionites." He announced that he was the Prophet Elijah returned to earth, and surrounded himself with armed guards under a pretence that his life was in danger. In 1904 he proclaimed himself First Apostle of the Christian Catholic Church. After one of the most remarkable careers in modern religious history, with all his great schemes frustrated, dispossessed of the enormous property he had acquired, and deserted by nearly every one, he died in neglect in Zion City, Ill., March 9, 1907.

Downes, JOHN, naval officer; born in Canton, Mass., Dec. 23, 1784; entered the navy in 1802; commanded the *Essex* during the War of 1812; and the *Épervier* in the war with Algiers. He died in Charlestown, Mass., Aug. 11, 1855.

Downes vs. Bidwell. An important Supreme Court case, in which the question as to whether Congress had the constitutional right to impose duties on importations from Porto Rico was decided. The court held that the island of Porto Rico, by the treaty of cession, became a territory appurtenant and belonging to the United States, but not a part of the United States within the revenue clauses of the Constitution, such as that requiring duties, imposts, and excises to be uniform throughout the United States; and, further, that the imposition of duties upon imports from Porto Rico by the act of Congress known as the Foraker act was a constitutional exercise of the power of Congress. Justice Brown delivered the decision in this case, and Justices White, Shiras, McKenna, and Gray concurred in the judgment; but not one of them agreed with Justice Brown in the process of reasoning by which he reached his conclusion.

Justice Brown's argument was as follows: "The Constitution was created by the people of the United States, as a nation of States, to be governed solely by representatives of the States; and even the provision relied upon here, that all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform 'throughout the United States,' is explained by subsequent provisions of the Constitution that 'no tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State,' and 'no preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another, nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.' In short, the Constitution deals with States, their people, and their representatives."

Justice Brown did not declare that the Territories are entirely without the sphere of the Constitution; he drew a distinction between certain rights peculiar to our system of jurisprudence guaranteed to citizens of the *States*, and certain natural rights the violation of which is prohibited in general terms in the Constitution. He disclaimed, therefore, "any intention to hold that the inhabitants of these Territories are subject to an unrestrained power on the part of Congress."

Downie, GEORGE, naval officer; born in Ross, Ireland; at an early age entered the British navy; in 1812 was given command of the squadron on the Lakes and commanded the British fleet at the battle of Plattsburg, in which he was killed, Sept. 11, 1814.

Draft Riots. See CONSCRIPTION; NEW YORK (city).

Drago Doctrine. When in the winter of 1902–03 Germany, Britain, and Italy blockaded the ports of Venezuela in attempt to make the latter country settle up its debts, Dr. L. F. Drago, a noted jurist of Argentina, maintained that force cannot be used by one power to collect money owing to its citizens by another power. Prominence was given to the con-

tention by the fact that it was officially upheld by Argentina and favored by other South American republics. The principle embodied has become generally known as the "Drago Doctrine."

The doctrine was presented to the Second International Peace Congress, at The Hague, in 1907, by its author, in the shape of a provision that "In the collection of public debts the debts must be claimed in the ordinary courts of the debtor country." As finally framed in a convention, through the initiative and efforts of Gen. Horace Porter, of the American delegation, the great principle has at last been definitely established that public debts must not be collected by force, except as a last resort. Speaking of the accomplishment, General Porter said:

"We were confronted by two great difficulties. One was the desire of creditor nations to employ force; the other was the reluctance of debtor nations to recognize the right of using force for this purpose under any circumstances. My proposition was a compromise. It absolutely forbade the employment of force for this purpose until after arbitration should have been refused or after an arbitral award had been set at naught. After patient discussion I had the supreme satisfaction of seeing my proposition accepted unanimously. This is a result of which America may well be proud."

Dragoons, an old name for cavalry.

Drainsville, Skirmish at. The loyal people of the country became impatient because the Army of the Potomac, fully 200,000 strong at the end of 1861, was seemingly kept at bay by 60,000 Confederates. There was a sense of relief when, on Dec. 20, Gen. E. O. C. Ord had a sharp skirmish with a Confederate force near Drainsville, led by Gen. J. E. B. Stuart. Ord had gone out to capture Confederate foragers, and to gather forage from the farms of Confederates. He was attacked by Stuart, who had come up from Centreville. A severe fight occurred, and the Confederates were beaten and fled. The Nationals lost seven killed and sixty-three wounded; the Confederates lost forty-three killed and 143 wounded. The Nationals returned to camp with sixteen wagon-loads of hay and twenty-two of corn.

Drake, Sir Francis, navigator; born near Tavistock, Devonshire, England, between 1539 and 1546. Becoming a seaman in early youth, he was owner and master of a ship at the age of eighteen years. After making commercial voyages to Guinea, Africa, he sold her, and invested the proceeds in an expedition to Mexico, under Captain Hawkins, in 1567. The fleet was nearly destroyed in an attack by the Spaniards at San Juan de Ulloa (near Vera Cruz), and Drake returned to England stripped of all his property. The Spanish government refused to indemnify him for his losses, and he sought revenge and found it. Queen Elizabeth gave him a commission in the royal navy, and in 1572 he sailed from Plymouth with two ships for the avowed purpose of plundering the Spaniards. He did so successfully on the coasts of South America, and returned in 1573 with greater wealth than he ever possessed before. Drake was welcomed as a hero; he soon won the title honorably by circumnavigating the globe. He had seen from a mountain on Darien the waters of the Pacific Ocean, and resolved to explore them. Under the patronage of the Queen, he sailed from Plymouth in December, 1577; passed through the Strait of Magellan into the Pacific Ocean; pillaged the Spanish settlements on the coasts of Peru and Chile, and a Spanish galleon laden with gold and silver bullion; and, pushing northward, discovered the bay of San Francisco, took possession of California in the name of his Queen, and named the country New Albion, or New England.

He had sailed northward as high, probably, as latitude 46°, or near the boundary between Oregon and the British possessions, and possibly he went farther north, for he encountered very cold weather in June, and turned back. Drake entered a fine bay and landed his stores, preparatory to repairing his ship; and he remained on the coast fully a month, hospitably treated by the natives. Late in June he was visited by the king of the country and his official attendants. The former was dressed in rabbit-skins—a peculiar mark of distinction. His officers were clad in feathers, and his other followers were almost naked. Drake received them cordially. The sceptre-bearer and

another officer made speeches, after which the natives indulged in a wild dance, in which the women joined. Then Drake was asked to sit down, when the king and his people desired him to "become the king and governor of the country." Then

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

the king, singing with all the rest, set a crown upon Drake's head, and saluted him as *Hioh,* or sovereign. Drake accepted the honor in the name of Queen Elizabeth. After taking possession of the country he erected a wooden post, placed upon it a copper plate, with an inscription, on which was asserted the right of Queen Elizabeth and her successors to the kingdom, with the time of his arrival there, and a statement of the voluntary resignation of the country to the English by the king and people. On the same plate were engraved the portrait and arms of the Queen and the navigator. Then he sailed for the Molucca Islands. It is believed that Sir Francis Drake entered the "Golden Gate" of San Francisco Bay, and that near its shores the ceremony of his coronation took place.

Fearing encounters with the Spaniards on his return with his treasure-laden vessels, Drake sought a northeast passage to England. Met by severe cold, he turned back, crossed the Pacific to the Spice Islands, thence over the Indian Ocean, and, doubling the Cape of Good Hope, reached England in November, 1580. The delighted

Queen knighted Drake, who afterwards plundered Spanish towns on the Atlantic coasts of America; and, returning, took a distressed English colony from Roanoke Island and carried them to England. In command of a fleet of thirty vessels, in 1587, he destroyed 100 Spanish vessels in the harbor of Cadiz; and from a captured vessel in the East India trade the English learned the immense value of that trade and how to carry it on. As vice-admiral, Drake materially assisted in defeating the Spanish Armada in 1588; and the next year he ravaged the coasts of the Spanish peninsula. After various other exploits of a similar kind, he accompanied Hawkins to the West Indies in 1595. Hawkins died at Porto Rico, and Drake, in supreme command, gained victory after

PART OF MAP OF DRAKE'S VOYAGES, PUBLISHED AT CLOSE OF SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

victory over the Spaniards. He died near Puerto Bello, Dec. 27, 1595, and was buried at sea.

Drake, FRANCIS SAMUEL, biographer; born in Northwood, N. H., Feb. 22, 1828; son of Samuel Gardner Drake. He is the author of *Dictionary of American Biography; Life of Gen. Henry Knox; The Town of Roxbury; Indian History for Young Folks,* etc. He edited *Schoolcraft's History of the Indians.* He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 22, 1885.

Drake, JOSEPH RODMAN. See HALLECK, FITZ-GREENE.

Drake, SAMUEL ADAMS, historian; born in Boston, Mass., Dec. 20, 1833; adopted journalism as a profession, but at the beginning of the Civil War entered the National service and rose to the rank of colonel of United States volunteers in 1863. He wrote *Nooks and Corners of the New England Coast; The Making of New England; Old Landmarks of Boston.* He died in Kennebunkport, Me., Dec. 4, 1905.

Drake, SAMUEL GARDNER, antiquarian; born in Pittsfield, N. H., Oct. 11, 1798; received a common-school education, and taught in a district school for several years. Settling in Boston, he there established the first antiquarian book-store in the United States, in 1828. He was one of the founders of the New England Historical Genealogical Society, of which he

was at one time president, and in 1847 began the publication of the *New England Genealogical Register*, continuing it many years as editor and publisher, making large contributions of biography to its pages. Mr. Drake resided in London about two years (1858–60). He prepared many valuable books on biographical and historical subjects. His *Book of the Indians* is a standard work on Indian history and biography. He prepared an excellent illustrated *History of Boston*, and his illustrative annotations of very old American books and pamphlets are of exceeding value. He died in Boston, June 14, 1875.

Drama, EARLY AMERICAN. As early as 1733, there appears to have been a sort of theatrical performance in the city of New York. In October of that year, George Talbot, a merchant, published a notice in Bradford's *Gazette*, directing inquiries to be made at his store "next door to the Play-house." In 1750 some young Englishmen and Americans got up a coffee-house representation of Otway's *Orphans* in Boston. The pressure for entrance to the novelty was so great that a disturbance arose, which gave the authorities reason for taking measures for the suppression of such performances. At the next session of the legislature a law was made prohibiting theatrical entertainments, because, as it was expressed in the preamble, they tended not only "to discourage industry and frugality, but likewise greatly to increase immorality, impiety, and a contempt for religion." Regular theatrical performances were introduced into America soon afterwards, when, in 1752, a company of actors from London, led by William and Lewis Hallam, played the *Beaux' Stratagem* at Annapolis, and soon afterwards *The Merchant of Venice* at Williamsburg, Va. The same company afterwards played at Philadelphia, Perth Amboy, New York, and Newport. The laws excluded them from Connecticut and Massachusetts.

Dramatic Art. See JEFFERSON, JOS.

Dranesville, SKIRMISH AT. See DRAINSVILLE.

Draper, JOHN WILLIAM, scientist; born in St. Helen's, near Liverpool, England, May 5, 1811; was educated in scientific studies at the University of London; came to the United States in 1833, and continued his medical and chemical studies in the University of Pennsylvania, where

JOHN WILLIAM DRAPER.

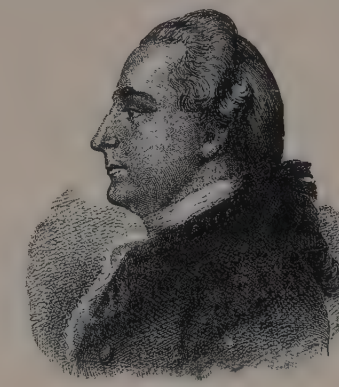
he took the degree of M.D. He became (1836–39) Professor of Chemistry, Natural Philosophy, and Physiology in Hampden-Sidney College, Virginia. From 1839 Dr. Draper was connected, as professor, with the University of the City of New York, and aided in establishing the University Medical College, of which he was appointed (1841) Professor of Chemistry. In 1850 physiology was added to the chair of chemistry. From that year he was the president of the medical faculty of the institution, and in 1874 he was also president of the scientific department of the university. Dr. Draper was one of the most patient, careful, and acute of scientific investigators. His industry in experimental researches was marvellous, and his publications on scientific subjects are voluminous. He contributed much to other departments of learning. His *History of the Intellectual Development of Europe* appeared in 1862; his *Thoughts on the Future Civil Policy of America*, in 1865; and his *History of the American Civil War*, in 3 volumes, appeared between 1867 and 1870. To Dr. Draper are due many fundamental facts concerning the phenomena of the spectrum—of light and heat. Among his later productions were reports of experimental examinations of the distribution of heat and of chemi-

cal force in the spectrum. Dr. Draper's researches materially aided in perfecting Daguerre's great discovery. In 1876 the Rumford gold medal was bestowed upon Dr. Draper by the American Academy of Sciences. He died Jan. 4, 1882.

Draper, LYMAN COPELAND, historian; born in Evans, N. Y., Sept. 4, 1815. In 1833 he gathered information regarding the Creek chief Weatherford, and from that time onward he was an indefatigable student, devoting his life to the collection of materials bearing upon the history of the Western States and biographies of the leading men of the country. In 1853 he was appointed secretary of the Wisconsin State Historical Society and was connected with the library of the society, with a few short intervals, till his death. He published the *Collections* of the State Historical Society (10 volumes); *The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence*, etc. He died in Madison, Wis., Aug. 26, 1891.

Drayton, PERCIVAL, naval officer; born in South Carolina, Aug. 25, 1812; entered the navy as a midshipman in 1827; was promoted lieutenant in 1838; took part in the Paraguay expedition in 1858; commanded the monitor *Passaic* in the bombardment of Fort McAllister, and Farragut's flag-ship, the *Hartford*, in the battle of Mobile Bay, Aug. 5, 1864; and afterwards became chief of the bureau of navigation. He died in Washington, D. C., Aug. 4, 1865.

Drayton, WILLIAM HENRY, statesman; born in Drayton Hall, S. C., in September, 1742; educated in England, and on his return he became a political writer. In 1771 he was appointed privy councillor for the province of South Carolina, but he soon espoused the cause of the patriots, and protested against the proceedings of his colleagues. In 1774 he addressed a pamphlet to the Continental Congress, in which he stated the grievances of the Americans, and drew up a bill of rights, and substantially marked out the line of conduct adopted by the Congress. He was appointed a judge in 1774, but was suspended from the office when he became a member of the committee of safety at Charleston. The first charge to the grand jury at Camden, S. C., in 1774, by Judge Drayton is conspicuous in American history. "In order to stimulate your exertions in favor of your civil liberties, which protect your religious rights," he said, "instead of discoursing to you on the laws of other states and comparing them to our own, allow me to tell you what your civil liberties are, and to charge you, which I do in the most solemn manner, to hold them dearer than your lives—a lesson and charge at all times proper from a judge, but particularly so at this crisis, when America is in one general and grievous commotion touching this truly important point." The judge then discoursed on the origin of the colony, the nature of the constitution, and their civil rights under it, and concluded by saying that some might think his charge inconsistent with his duty to the King who had just placed him on the bench;



WILLIAM HENRY DRAYTON.

"but, for my part," he said, "in my judicial character I know no master but the law. I am a servant, not to the King, but to the constitution; and, in my estimation, I shall best discharge my duty as a good servant to the King and a trusty officer under the constitution when I boldly declare the laws to the people and instruct them in their civil rights." This charge, scattered broadcast by the press, had a powerful influence in the colonies, and, with other patriotic acts, cost Judge Drayton his office. In 1775 he was president of the Provincial Congress of South Carolina. In 1776 he became chief-justice of the State; and his published charge

to a grand jury in April, that year, displayed great wisdom and energy, and was widely circulated and admired. Mr. Drayton was chosen president, or governor, of South Carolina in 1777, and in 1778–79 was a member of the Continental Congress. He wrote a history of the Revolution to the end of the year 1778, which was published by his son in 1821. He died in Philadelphia, Sept. 3, 1779.

Dreadnaught, name of the first of its class of British battle-ships; built in 1905–06; having a displacement of 17,900 tons, and carrying ten 12-inch guns in its main battery. The formidable character of this vessel quickly attracted the attention of all maritime powers and led them to build ships of a similar class, to which the distinguishing name of *Dreadnaughts* was applied. Soon the rivalry, especially among the European powers, became so acute that vessels of still greater displacement and armament were authorized, and to these the class-name of *Super-Dreadnaughts* was given. In 1911 Great Britain launched the *Monarch* and *Conqueror*, both of 22,680 tons displacement, and had under construction four other vessels of 23,500 tons each—the limit to that time of battle-ships—and an armored cruiser, *Queen Mary*, 27,000 tons. Brazil was then building in England the largest of all battle-ships, *Rio Janeiro*, of 32,000 tons, to cost $14,500,000. The United States in that year had the *Delaware* and *North Dakota*, 20,000 tons each, carrying ten 12-inch and fourteen 5-inch guns in commission, and the *Utah* and *Florida*, 21,825 tons each, the *Wyoming* and *Arkansas*, 26,000 tons each, and the *Texas* and *New York*, 32,000 tons each, under construction. The *Delaware*, which represented the United States navy at the coronation of King George V., was the most powerful of all international battle-ships assembled for the royal review. See NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES.

Up to the close of 1911 the American Dreadnaughts in commission carried only 12-inch rifles. The *New York* and the *Texas*, then under construction, were planned to be armed with two 14-inch rifles in each of their five turrets, which would make them the only war-ships in the world with main batteries of that calibre. An innovation that excited still greater interest in the naval circles of the world was provided for the new giant battle-ships *Oklahoma* and *Nevada*, for the construction of which bids were about to be asked. No ship then afloat had more than two big guns in a turret, and while Italy and Russia were building several vessels with three-gun turrets, they were both to use 12-inch rifles. The new American giants, however, were planned for three 14-inch rifles in each of their two turrets, which would make them the heaviest-armed war-ships in the world.

Dred Scott Case, THE. At about the time that Mr. Buchanan became President-elect of the republic a case of much moment was adjudicated by the Supreme Court of the United States. A negro named Dred Scott had been the slave of a United States army officer living in Missouri. He was taken by his master to a military post in Illinois, to which the latter had been ordered in the year 1834. There Scott married the female slave of another officer, with the consent of their respective masters. They had two children born in that free-labor Territory. The mother was bought by the master of Scott, and parents and children were taken by that officer back to Missouri and there sold. Scott sued for his freedom on the plea of his involuntary residence in a free-labor Territory and State for several years. The case was tried in the Circuit Court of St. Louis, and the decision was in Scott's favor. The Supreme Court of the State reversed the decision and the case was carried to the Supreme Court of the United States, Chief-justice ROGER B. TANEY (*q. v.*) presiding. The chief-justice and a majority of the court were friends of the slave system, and their decision, which for prudential reasons was withheld until after the Presidential election in 1856, was against Scott. The chief-justice declared that any person "whose ancestors were imported into this country and held as slaves" had no right to sue in a court of the United States; in other words, he denied the right of citizenship to any person who had been a slave or was a descendant of a slave. The chief-justice, with the sanction of a majority of the court, further declared that the framers and supporters of the

Declaration of American Independence did not include the negro race in our country in the great proclamation that "*all* men are created equal"; that the patriots of the Revolution and their progenitors "for more than a century before" regarded the negro race as so far inferior that they had no rights which the white man was bound to respect, and that they were never spoken of except as property. He also declared that the framers of the national Constitution held the same views. The chief-justice went further in his extra-judicial declarations, saying that the MISSOURI COMPROMISE (*q. v.*) and all other acts restricting slavery were unconstitutional, and that neither Congress nor local legislatures had any authority for restricting the spread over the whole Union of the institution of slavery. The dominant party assumed that the decision was final; that slavery was a national institution, having the right to exist anywhere in the Union, and that the boast of a Georgia politician that he should yet "count his slaves on Bunker Hill" might be legally carried out. President Buchanan, who had been informed of this decision before its promulgation, foreshadowed his course in the matter in his inaugural address (March 4, 1857), in which he spoke of the measure as one which would "speedily and finally" settle the slavery question. The decision was promulgated March 6, 1857.

Of the two dissenting opinions, McLean's was vigorous in language and argument, but Curtis's was undeniably superior and has gained a fame seldom acquired by dissenting views. He took it up categorically, and, by a complete, logical argument, refuted every one of the chief-justice's points. He began by disproving on historical grounds the assertion that no negro could be a citizen; hence Dred Scott could not legally be debarred from bringing suit on the mere ground of color. In continuing, he held that the Missouri decision was not binding upon the Supreme Court, and that a slave did gain a right to freedom by residence in a region where slavery was prohibited. The contention that the United States had no power to exclude slavery from a Territory, Curtis showed to be contrary to the uniform practice of the government since 1789, and a practical reversal of several fundamental decisions of the court concerning the powers of Congress over Territories. He held, therefore, that the Missouri Compromise had been constitutional up to its repeal in 1854, and that Scott ought to be declared free because of his residence in the Territory to which it referred.

As an exposition of the Websterian or Federalist conception of the nature of the government and the powers of Congress, this dissenting opinion was a masterpiece. It overthrew the labored arguments of Taney, and showed the majority to be innovators and practical revolutionists. Curtis plainly said that, in his eyes, the decision was worthless. "On so grave a subject as this," he said, "I feel obliged to say that in my opinion such an exertion of judicial power transcends the limits of the authority of the court, as described by repeated decisions. . . . I do not consider it to be within the scope of the judicial power of the court to pass upon any question respecting the plaintiff's citizenship in Missouri save that raised by the plea to the jurisdiction, and I do not hold an opinion of this court, or of any court, binding when expressed on a question not legitimately before it." The only point where Curtis's argument failed to overthrow the majority opinions was his denial of the binding force of the Missouri decision upon the United States courts.

Drewry's, or Drury's, Bluff. See RODGERS, JOHN.

Drum, RICHARD COULTER, military officer; born in Pennsylvania, May 28, 1825; joined the army in 1846, and served in the Mexican War, being present at the siege of Vera Cruz and the actions of Chapultepec and Mexico City. He was commissioned colonel and assistant adjutant-general Feb. 22, 1869; promoted brigadier-general and adjutant-general June 15, 1880; retired May 28, 1889. He died Oct. 25, 1909.

Drummond, SIR GEORGE GORDON; born in Quebec in 1771. In 1813 he was second in command to Sir George Prevost; planned the capture of Fort Niagara in December of that year; took the villages of Black Rock and Buffalo; captured Oswego in May, 1814; and was in chief com-

mand of the British forces at the battle of LUNDY'S LANE (*q. v.*) in July. In August he was repulsed at Fort Erie, with heavy loss, and was severely wounded. He succeeded Prevost in 1814, and returned to England in 1816. The next year he received the grand cross of the Bath. He died in London, Oct. 10, 1854.

Drummond, WILLIAM, colonial governor; born in Scotland; was appointed governor of the Albemarle county colony by Sir William Berkeley, governor of Virginia, and joint proprietary of Carolina. During the Bacon rebellion (see BACON, NATHANIEL), when Berkeley retreated to Accomac, Drummond proposed that Berkeley should be deposed. This proposition met with the favor of the leading planters, who met at Williamsburg and agreed to support Bacon against the government. The death of Bacon left the rebellion without a competent leader. Sir William Berkeley wreaked his vengeance on thirty-three of the principal offenders. When Drummond was brought before him Berkeley exclaimed: "I am more glad to see you than any man in Virginia. You shall be hanged in half an hour." He died Jan. 20, 1677.

Drury's Bluff, BATTLE AT. See RODGERS, JOHN.

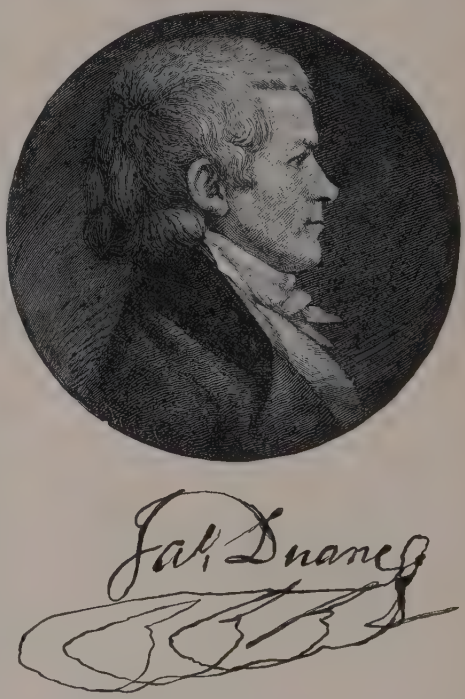
Dry-Dock, Dewey. See DOCKS.

Dry Tortugas, a group of several small, barren islands, about 40 miles west of the Florida Keys. They served as a place of imprisonment during the Civil War.

Dryden, JOHN FAIRFIELD, financier; born near Farmington, Maine, Aug. 7, 1839; educated at Yale University; removed to New Jersey, 1871; established the Prudential Insurance Company of America in 1875; was a United States Senator in 1902–07. He died in Newark, N. J., Nov. 24, 1911.

Duane, JAMES, jurist; born in New York City, Feb. 6, 1733. In 1759 he married a daughter of Col. Robert Livingston. He was a member of the first Continental Congress (1774); of the Provincial Convention of New York in 1776–77; also in Congress, 1780–82. He returned to New York City in 1783, after the evacuation, and was the first mayor of that city after the Revolution. In 1783–84 he was a member of the council and State Senator, and in 1788 was a member of the convention of New York that adopted the national Constitution. From 1789 to 1794 he was United States district judge. He died in Duanesburg, N. Y., Feb. 1, 1797.

Late in May, 1775, Judge Duane moved in Congress, in committee of the whole, the "opening of negotiations in order to accommodate the unhappy disputes subsisting between Great Britain and the colonies, and that this be made a part of the [second] petition to the King" prepared by John Jay. It was a dangerous proposal at that time, as it was calculated to cool the ardor of resistance which then animated the people. Duane was a stanch patriot, but was anxious for peace, if it could be procured with honor and for the good of his country. His proposition was considered by Congress at the same time when a proposition for a similar purpose which had come from Lord North was before that body. The timid portion of



Congress prevailed, and it was resolved to address another petition to his Majesty, but at the same time to put the colonies into a state of defence. Duane's motion was carried, but against a most determined and unyielding opposition, and it rather retarded the prospect of a peaceful solution. It had no practical significance, unless it was intended to accept the proposition of Lord North as the basis for an agreement.

Duane, JAMES CHATHAM, military officer; born in Schenectady, N. Y., June 30, 1824; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1848, and served with the corps of engineers till 1854. He rendered excellent work during the Civil War, notably in the building of a bridge 2,000 feet long over the Chickahominy River. He was brevetted brigadier-general in 1865; promoted brigadier-general and chief of engineers, U. S. A., in 1886; retired June 30, 1888. From his retirement till his death, Nov. 8, 1897, he was president of the New York Aqueduct Commission.

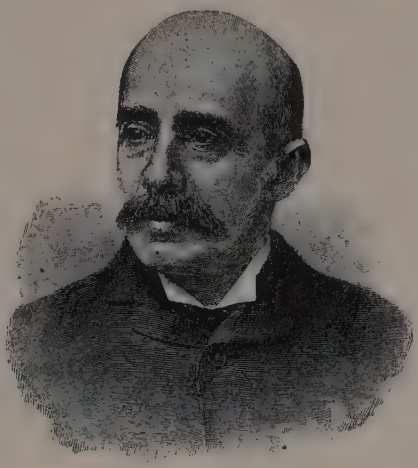
Duane, WILLIAM, statesman; born in Devonshire, England, March 18, 1747; removed to New York in 1768; member of the New York provincial congress; delegate to the Continental Congress, 1777–78; secretary of the treasury board, 1789; Assistant Secretary of the Treasury under Hamilton. He died in New York City, May 7, 1799.

Duane, WILLIAM ALEXANDER, jurist; born in Rhinebeck, N. Y., Sept. 8, 1780; entered the United States navy in 1798; admitted to the bar in 1802; member of the State Assembly; judge of the New York Supreme Court, 1822–29; president of Columbia College, 1829–42. He wrote *The Life of Lord Sterling, The Steamboat Controversy,* etc. He died in New York City, May 30, 1858.

Duane, WILLIAM JOHN, lawyer; born in Ireland in 1780; was Secretary of the United States Treasury in 1833, but was opposed to General Jackson's action in the matter of the United States Bank, and was therefore removed from office. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 27, 1865.

Dubois, FRED THOMAS, legislator; born in Crawford county, Ill., May 27, 1851; removed to Idaho in 1880; was a member of Congress in 1887–91; secured the admission of Idaho to the Union in 1890; and was its first Senator, serving from 1891 to 1897, and again in 1901–07.

Dubois, WILLIAM EDWARD B., educator; born in Great Barrington, Mass., Feb. 23,



PAUL BELLONI DU CHAILLU.

1868, of negro descent; was graduated at Harvard University in 1890; professor of economics and history in Atlanta University from 1896. He wrote *The Suppression of the Slave Trade,* etc.

Du Chaillu, PAUL BELLONI, explorer; born in New Orleans, La., July 31, 1838. He is best known by the results of two exploring trips to west Africa, during which he discovered and examined considerable territory almost unknown previously, and added sixty species of birds and twenty of mammals to the zoology of Africa. His accounts of the gorillas and pygmies excited a large interest among scientists, and for a time many of his assertions were sharply contradicted as being impossible; but subsequent explorations by others confirmed all that he had claimed. His publications include *Explorations and Adventures in Equatorial Africa; A Journey to Ashango Land; Stories of the Gorilla Country; Wild Life Under the Equator; My Apingi Kingdom; The Country of the Dwarfs; The Land of the Midnight Sun; The Viking Age; Ivar, the Viking; The People of the Great African Forest;* etc. He died in St. Petersburg, April 29, 1903.

Duché, JACOB, clergyman; born in Philadelphia, in 1737; educated at the University of Pennsylvania; and became an eloquent Episcopalian. A descendant of a Huguenot, he naturally loved freedom. He was invited by the Continental Congress of 1774 to open their proceedings with prayer. In 1775 he became rector of Christ Church, and espoused the patriot cause. Of a timid nature, Duché, when the British took possession of Philadelphia (1777), alarmed by the gloomy outlook, forsook the Americans, and, in a letter to Washington, urged him to do likewise. This letter was transmitted to Congress, and Duché fled to England, where he became a popular preacher. His estate was confiscated, and he was banished as a traitor. In 1790 Duché returned to Philadelphia, where he died Jan. 3, 1798.

First Prayer in Congress.—The following is the text of Dr. Duché's first prayer in Congress:

O Lord, our Heavenly Father, high and mighty King of kings and Lord of lords, Who dost from Thy throne behold all the dwellers of the earth, and reignest with power supreme and uncontrollable over the kingdoms, empires, and governments, look down in mercy, we beseech Thee, on these American States, who have fled to Thee from the rod of the oppressor and thrown themselves on Thy gracious protection. Desiring to be henceforth only dependent on Thee, to Thee have they appealed for the righteousness of their cause: to Thee do they now look up for that countenance and support which Thou alone canst give. Take them, therefore, Heavenly Father, under Thy nurturing care: give them wisdom in council and valor in the field. Defeat the malicious designs of our adversaries, convince them of the unrighteousness of their cause; and, if they still persist in their sanguinary purpose, oh! let the voice of Thy unerring justice, sounding in their hearts, constrain them to drop the weapons of war in their unnerved hands in the day of battle. Be Thou present, O God of wisdom, and direct the councils of this honorable assembly; enable them to settle things on the best and surest foundation, that the scene of blood may be speedily closed; that order, harmony, and peace may be restored, and truth and justice, religion and piety prevail and flourish among the people. Preserve the health of their bodies and the vigor of their minds; shower down on them and the millions they represent such temporal blessings as Thou seest expedient for them in this world, and crown them with everlasting glory in the world to come. All this we ask in the name and through the merits of Jesus Christ, Thy Son, our Saviour. Amen.

Duchesne, PHILIPPA ROSE, missionary; born in France in 1769; came to America in 1818 and engaged in religious work among the Indians of Louisiana. In 1820 she founded in Barriens, on the Bois-Brule, the first permanent home of the sisterhood of the Sacred Heart in America, and lived to see the order established in all the large cities of the United States. She died in St. Charles, La., in 1852.

Ducking-stool. The English colonies in America continued for a long time the manners and customs of their native land; among others, that of the use of the ducking-stool for the punishment of inveterate scolding women. Bishop Meade, in *Old Churches, Ministers, and Families in Virginia,* says, "If a woman was convicted of slander, her husband was made to pay five hundred-weight of tobacco"; but the law proving insufficient, the penalty was changed to ducking. Places for ducking were prepared at court-houses. An instance is mentioned of a woman who was ordered to be ducked three times from a vessel lying in the James River. The woman was tied to a chair at the longer end of a lever, controlled at the shorter end by men with a rope, and then lowered so as to be plunged under water.

Duck Run, BATTLE AT. See COLUMBIA, TENN.

Dudley, DEAN, genealogist; born in Kingsfield, Me., May 23, 1823; admitted to the bar in 1854. Among his works are genealogies of the Dudley and Swift families; *Officers of Our Union Army and Navy,* etc.

Dudley, JOSEPH, colonial governor; born in Roxbury, Mass., July 23, 1647; graduated at Harvard in 1665; prepared for the ministry, but, preferring politics, became a representative in the

general court and a magistrate. From 1677 to 1681 he was one of the commissioners for the united colonies of New England. He was in the battle with the Narragansets in 1675, and was one of the commissioners who dictated the terms of a treaty with that tribe. In September, 1685, King James commissioned him president of New England, and in 1687 he was made chief-justice of the Supreme Court. Dudley was sent to England with Andros in 1689, and the next year was made chief-justice of New York. He went to England in 1693, and was deputy governor of the Isle of Wight. He entered Parliament in 1701, and from 1702 to 1715 he was captain-general and governor of Massachusetts. Then he retired to his quiet home at Roxbury, where he died, April 2, 1720.

The disputes between the royal governors and the people, which continued about seventy years, were begun in Massachusetts with Dudley. In his first speech he demanded a "fit and convenient house" for the governor, and a settled and stated salary for him. The House, in their answer the next day, observed that they would proceed to the consideration of these propositions "with all convenient speed." They resolved to present, out of the public treasury, the sum of £500, and said, "as to settling a salary for the governor, it is altogether new to us, nor can we think it agreeable to our present constitution, but we shall be ready to do, according to our ability, what may be proper on our part for the support of the government." The governor sent for the speaker and the representatives to come to his chamber, when he declared his disappointment because of their procedure, and expressed a hope that they would think better of the matter.

Dudley, THOMAS, colonial governor; born in Northampton, England, in 1576; was an officer of Queen Elizabeth, serving in Holland; and afterwards he became a Puritan, and retrieved the fortunes of the Earl of Lincoln by a faithful care of his estate as his steward. He came to Boston in 1630, as deputy governor, with his son-in-law, Simon Bradstreet, and held the office ten years. He was appointed major-general of the colony in 1644. He died in Roxbury, Mass., July 31, 1653.

Duelling. See BLADENSBURG DUELLING FIELD.

Duer, WILLIAM, statesman; born in Devonshire, England, March 18, 1747; in 1767 was aide to Lord Clive in India; came to America, and in 1768 purchased a tract of land in Washington county, N. Y.; became colonel of the militia, judge of the county court, member of the New York Provincial Congress, and of the committee of safety. He was one of the committee that drafted the first constitution of the State of New York (1777), and was a delegate in Congress in 1777–78; and he was secretary of the Treasury Board until the reorganization of the finance department under the national Constitution. He was assistant Secretary of the Treasury under Hamilton until 1790. Colonel Duer married (1779) Catharine, daughter of Lord Stirling. He died in New York City, May 7, 1799.

Duffield, WILLIAM WARD, military officer; born in Carlisle, Pa., Nov. 19, 1823; graduated at Columbia College in 1842; served with gallantry in the war with Mexico. In 1861 he was made colonel of the 9th Michigan Infantry; in 1862 he captured the Confederate force at Lebanon. He was brevetted major-general of volunteers in 1863; was compelled by his wounds to resign. He was superintendent of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey in 1894–98. He published *School of the Brigade and Evolutions of the Line.* He died in 1907.

Dug Springs, BATTLE AT. General Lyon was 80 miles from Springfield when he heard of the perils of Sigel after the fight at Carthage. He pushed on to the relief of the latter, and on July 13, 1861, he and Sigel joined their forces, when the general took the chief command. The combined armies numbered, at that time, about 6,000 men, horse and foot, with eighteen pieces of artillery. There Lyon remained in a defensive attitude for some time, waiting for reinforcements which had been called for, but which did not come. The Confederates had been largely reinforced; and at the close of July Lyon was informed that they were marching upon Springfield in two columns — 20,000 — under the respective

commands of Generals Price, McCulloch, Pearce, McBride, and Rains. Lyon went out to meet them with about 6,000 men and eighteen cannon. At Dug Springs, 19 miles southwest of Springfield, they encountered a large Confederate force under General Rains. The National vanguard of infantry and cavalry, under Steele and Stanley, were unexpectedly attacked by Confederate infantry. A sudden charge of Stanley's horsemen scattered the Confederates in every direction. The Confederates withdrew, leaving the valley in the possession of the Nationals. Lyon's loss was eight men killed and thirty wounded; that of Rains was about forty killed and as many wounded.

Duke's Laws. The Duke of York, afterwards James II., authorized a code of laws for New York which were drawn up in 1664 by Colonel Nicholls. They provided for equal taxation, trial by jury, freedom of religion, recognition of negro slavery, etc.

Du Lhut, or **Duluth,** DANIEL GREYSOLON, explorer; born in Lyons, France; carried on a traffic in furs under the protection of Count Frontenac; explored the upper Mississippi in 1678–80, at which time he joined Father Hennepin and his companions. He took part in the campaign against the Seneca Indians in 1687 and brought with him a large number of Indians from the upper lakes. In 1695 he was placed in command of Fort Frontenac. He died near Lake Superior in 1709.

Duluth, Minn. An important commercial and manufacturing city, with extensive shipments of lumber and iron ore; foreign commerce in 1910 of $399,396 in imports and $2,524,340 in exports; manufactures with annual output exceeding $10,000,000 in value; and an assessed property valuation in 1910 of $37,283,400. It was named after Du Lhut, who built a hut here in 1760; was first settled in 1855; incorporated as a town in 1857 and as a city in 1869; and subsequently enlarged by the annexation of Lake Side and West Duluth. Pop. (1900), 52,969; (1910), 78,466.

Dumba, CONSTANTIN THEODOR, diplomat, born in Vienna, Austria, June 17, 1856; was graduated in law at the University of Vienna in 1878; studied political science in Paris in 1878–79; entered the Austrian Foreign Office in 1879; became Austrian ambassador to the United States, April 24, 1913.

Dummer, FORT, a protective work erected on the site of what is now Brattleboro, Vt., to cover the towns in the valley of the Connecticut River at the time of the war against the Norridgewock Indians (1723).

Dun, EDWIN, diplomatist; born in Chillicothe, O., in July, 1848; went to Japan in 1873, becoming successively United States Second Secretary of Legation, First Secretary of Legation, and, from 1893 to 1897, United States minister. During the war between China and Japan the Chinese government placed its interests in Japan in his care. See DENBY, CHARLES.

Dunkards, or GERMAN BAPTISTS, a body of Christians who trace their origin back to Alexander Mack, one of a small number of Pietists who had migrated to the province of Witgenstein, Germany, to escape persecution. In 1708 he became their minister. In 1719 Mr. Mack and all his followers came by way of Holland to America and settled in and around Philadelphia. They dress plainly, refrain from taking active part in politics, affirm instead of taking an oath, settle their quarrels among themselves without going to law, do not join secret societies, etc. They hold that every believer should be immersed face forward, being dipped at the mention of each name of the Trinity. The Dunkards now consist of four bodies —the Conservative, Old Order, Progressive, and German Seventh-day Baptists. In 1910 there were reported for all bodies, 1,097 organizations; 97,144 members; 1,442 church edifices; church property valued at $2,802,532; 2,255 ministers; and 1,223 Sunday-schools, with 10,789 officers and teachers and 78,578 scholars. The Conservative body was the strongest numerically, 76,547.

Dunlap, JOHN, printer; born in Strabane, Ireland, in 1747; learned the printing trade from his uncle, who was in business in Philadelphia; and at the age of eighteen began the publication of the Pennsylvania *Packet.* This was made a daily paper in 1784, and was the first daily issued in the United States. The title was afterwards changed to the *North-*

American and United States Gazette. As printer to Congress Mr. Dunlap printed the Declaration of Independence. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 27, 1812.

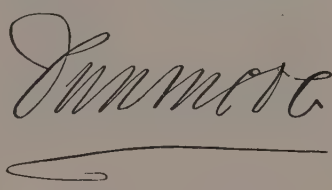
Dunlap, WILLIAM, painter, dramatist, and historian; born in Perth Amboy, N. J., Feb. 19, 1766. His father, being a loyalist, went to New York City in 1777, where William began to paint. He made a portrait of Washington at Rocky Hill, N. J., in 1783. The next year he went to England and received instructions from Benjamin West. He became an actor for a short time, and in 1796 was one of the managers of the John Street Theatre, New York. He took the Park Theatre in 1798. From 1814 to 1816 he was paymaster-general of the New York State militia. He began a series of paintings in 1816. In 1833 he published a *History of the American Theatres*, and in 1834 a *History of the Arts of Design.* His *History of New Netherland and the State of New York* was published in 1840. Mr. Dunlap was one of the founders of the National Academy of Design. He died in New York City, Sept. 28, 1839.

Dunmore, JOHN MURRAY, EARL OF, royal governor; born in Scotland in 1732; was descended in the feminine line from the house of Stuart. He was made governor of New York in January, 1770, and of Virginia, July, 1771, arriving there early in 1772. When the Virginia Assembly recommended a committee of correspondence (March, 1773), he im-

SEAL OF LORD DUNMORE.

mediately dissolved it, and in May, 1774, he again dissolved the Assembly because it had passed a resolution making the 1st of June a day of fasting and prayer. This was the same day which had been appointed by the Massachusetts legislature for the same purpose.

In 1775, finding the people of his colony committed to the cause of freedom, he engaged in a conspiracy to bring the Indians in hostile array against the Virginia frontier. He employed Dr. John Connelly, whom he had commissioned in 1774 to lead a movement for sustaining the claims of Virginia to the whole district of Pennsylvania west of



LORD DUNMORE'S SIGNATURE.

the Alleghany Mountains. He was a native of Pennsylvania, and lived at Pittsburg; and it is believed that he suggested to Dunmore the plan of combining the Western Indians against the colonists. He visited General Gage at Boston early in the autumn of 1775, and immediately after his return to Williamsburg he left Dunmore and departed for the Ohio country, with two companions. They were stopped near Hagerstown as suspicious persons, sent back to Frederick, and there an examination of Connelly's papers revealed the whole nefarious plot. He bore Dunmore's commission of colonel, and was directed to raise a regiment in the western country and Canada, the rendezvous to be at Detroit, where hostilities against the white people might be more easily fomented among the Indians. Thence he was to march in the spring, enter Virginia with a motley force, and meet Dunmore at Alexandria, on the Potomac, who would be there with a military and naval force. The arrest of Connelly frustrated the design. He was put in jail and his papers were sent to the Continental Congress. He was kept a prisoner until about the end of the war.

What is known historically as "Dunmore's War" was a campaign against the Ohio Indians undertaken by Lord Dunmore in 1774.

The cold-blooded murder of the family of LOGAN (*q. v.*), an eminent Mingo chief, and other atrocities, had caused fearful retaliation on the part of the barbarians. While Pennsylvanians and the agents of the Six Nations were making efforts for peace, Governor Dunmore, bent on war, called for volunteers, and 400 of these were gathered on the banks of the Ohio, a little below Wheeling. This force marched against and destroyed (Aug. 7, 1774) a Shawnee town on the Muskingum. They were followed by Dunmore, with 1,500 Virginians, who pressed forward against an Indian village on the Scioto, while Col. Andrew Lewis, with 1,200 men, encountered a force of Indians at Point Pleasant, at the mouth of the Great Kanawha River (Oct. 10), where a bloody battle ensued. The Indians were led by Logan, Cornstalk, and other braves. The Virginians were victorious, but lost seventy men killed and wounded. Dunmore was charged with inciting the Indian war and arranging the campaign so as to carry out his political plans. It was charged that he arranged the expedition so as to have the force under Lewis annihilated by the Indians, and thereby weaken the physical strength and break down the spirits of the Virginians, for they were defying royal power. His efforts afterwards to incite a servile insurrection in Virginia for the same purpose show that he was capable of exercising almost any means to accomplish his ends. The Indians in the Ohio country, alarmed at the approach of Dunmore, had hastened to make peace. Logan refused to attend the conference for the purpose, but sent a speech which became famous in history. Dunmore's officers in that expedition, having heard of the movements in New England, and of the Continental Congress, held a meeting at Fort Gower (mouth of the Hockhocking River), and after complimenting the governor and declaring their allegiance to the King, resolved to maintain the rights of the colonists by every means in their power.

The bold movement in the Virginia convention (March, 1775) excited the official wrath of Governor Dunmore, who stormed in proclamations; and to frighten the Virginians (or, probably, with a more mischievous intent), he caused a rumor to be circulated that he intended to excite an insurrection among the slaves. Finally, late in April, he caused marines to come secretly at night from the *Fowey*, a sloop-of-war in the York River, and carry to her the powder in the old magazine at Williamsburg. The movement was discovered. The minute-men assembled at dawn, and were with difficulty restrained from seizing the governor. The assembled people sent a respectful remonstrance to Dunmore, complaining of the act as specially cruel at that time, when a servile insurrection was apprehended. The governor replied evasively, and the people demanded the return of the powder. When Patrick Henry heard of the act, he gathered a corps of volunteers and marched towards the capital. The frightened governor sent a deputation to meet him. One of them was the receiver-general of the province. They met 16 miles from Williamsburg, where the matter was compromised by the receiver-general paying the full value of the powder. Henry sent the money to the public treasury and returned home.

REMAINS OF LORD DUNMORE'S PALACE.

In November, 1775, Lord Dunmore proceeded in the war-ship *Fowey* to Norfolk, where he proclaimed freedom to all slaves who should join the royal standard, which he had unfurled, and take up arms against the "rebels." He declared martial law throughout Virginia, and made Norfolk the rendezvous for a British fleet. He sent marauding parties on the shores of the Elizabeth and James rivers to distress the Whig inhabitants. Being repelled with spirit, he resolved to strike a severe blow that should produce terror. He began to lay waste the country around. The people were aroused and the militia were rapidly gathering for the defence of the inhabitants, when Dunmore, becoming

alarmed, constructed batteries at Norfolk, armed the Tories and negroes, and fortified a passage over the Elizabeth River, known as the Great Bridge, a point where he expected the militiamen to march to attack him. Being repulsed in a battle there (Dec. 9, 1775), Dunmore abandoned his intrenchments at Norfolk and repaired to his ships, when, menaced by famine —for the people would not furnish supplies — and annoyed by shots from some of the houses, he cannonaded the town (Jan. 1, 1776) and sent sailors and marines ashore to set it on fire. The greater portion of the compact part of the city was burned while the cannonade was kept up. The part of the city which escaped was presently burned by the Virginians to prevent it from becoming a shelter to the enemy. Thus perished, a prey to civil war, the largest and richest of the rising towns of Virginia. After committing other depredations on the Virginia coast, he landed on Gwyn's Island, in Chesapeake Bay, with 500 men, black and white, cast up some intrenchments, and built a stockade fort. Virginia militia, under Gen. Andrew Lewis, attacked and drove him from the island. In this engagement Dunmore was wounded. Burning several of his vessels that were aground, Dunmore sailed away with the remainder, with a large amount of booty, among which were about 1,000 slaves. After more plundering on the coast the vessels were dispersed, some to the West Indies, some to the Bermudas and St. Augustine, and Dunmore himself proceeded to join the naval force at New York, and soon afterwards went to England. In 1786 Dunmore was made governor of Bermuda. He died in Ramsgate, England, in May, 1809.

THE OLD MAGAZINE AT WILLIAMSBURG.

Dunmore's War. See CRESAP, MICHAEL; DUNMORE, JOHN MURRAY, EARL OF; LOGAN.

Duponceau, PETER STEPHEN, philologist; born in the Isle of Rhé, France, June 3, 1760; went to Paris in 1775, where he became acquainted with Baron Steuben, and accompanied him to America as his secretary. He was brevetted a captain (February, 1778), and assisted Steuben in the preparation of his system of military tactics for the use of the United States troops. From 1781 to 1783 he was secretary to Robert R. Livingston, then at the head of the foreign office of the government; and then studying law, was admitted to practice in 1785, becoming eminent in the profession on questions of civil and international law. He finally devoted himself to literature and science, and made many valuable researches into the language and literature of the North American Indians. In 1819 he published a *Memoir on the Structure of the Indian Languages.* When seventy-eight years of age (1838) he published a *Dissertation on the Chinese Language;* also a translation of a *Description of New Sweden.* In 1835 the French Institute awarded him a prize for a disquisition on the Indian languages of North America. Mr. Duponceau opened a law academy in Philadelphia in 1821, and wrote several essays on the subject of law. He died in Philadelphia, April 2, 1844.

Du Pont, ÉLEUTHÈRE IRÉNÉE, scientist; born in Paris, France, June 24, 1771; son of Pierre Samuel Du Pont de Nemours; emigrated to the United States in 1799; bought a tract of land near Wilmington, Del., where he established the powder works, which have since been maintained by the Dupont (modern form) family. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 31, 1834.

Dupont, SAMUEL FRANCIS, naval officer; born in Bergen Point, N. J., Sept. 27, 1803; entered the United States navy as

midshipman at twelve years of age, and became commander, Oct. 28, 1842. He saw much active service on the California coast during the war with Mexico, clearing the Gulf of California of Mexican vessels. He was promoted to captain in 1855; and in October, 1861, he proceeded, in command of the South Atlantic squadron, to capture Port Royal Island, on the South Carolina coast, to secure a central harbor and depot of supplies on the Southern shores. In July Commodore Dupont was made a rear-admiral, and in April, 1863, he commanded the fleet which made an unsuccessful effort to capture Charleston. Admiral Dupont assisted in organizing the naval school at Annapolis, and was the author of a highly commended report on the use of floating batteries for coast defence. He died in Philadelphia, June 23, 1865.

SAMUEL FRANCIS DUPONT.

Duportail, Louis Lebègue, Chevalier, military officer; born in France in 1736; came to America in the early part of the Revolutionary War, and was appointed brigadier-general in the Continental army in November, 1777, and major-general, November, 1781. He was directing engineer at the siege of Yorktown in the fall of 1781. Returning to France, he was named *maréchal-de-camp;* and in November, 1790, was made minister of war. In December, 1791, he resigned; and when engaged in military service in Lorraine, he received a warning of the designs of the Jacobins, and sought safety in America. He died at sea in 1802, when returning to France.

Dupratz, Antoine Simon Le Page, explorer; born in Tourcoing, France, in 1689; settled on the Mississippi River among the Natchez Indians in 1720. For eight years he explored the regions watered by the Missouri and Arkansas rivers. He published a *History of Louisiana, or of the Western Parts of Virginia and Carolina.* He died in Paris, France, in 1775.

Du Quesne de Meuneville, Marquis, governor of New France, 1752–55; erected forts in the West, the chief of which was Fort Du Quesne, on the site of Pittsburg, Pa.

Duquesne, Fort. While Captain Trent was building this fort (1754) Captain Contrecœur, with 1,000 Frenchmen and eighteen cannon, went down the Alleghany River, took possession of the unfinished fortification, and named it Fort Duquesne. Lieutenant-Colonel Washington, with a small force, hurried from Cumberland to recapture it, but was made a prisoner, with about 400 men, at Fort Necessity. In 1755 an expedition for the capture of Fort Duquesne, commanded by Gen. Edward Braddock *(q. v.)*, marched from Will's Creek (Cumberland) on June 10, about 2,000 strong, British and provincials. On the banks of the Monongahela Braddock was defeated and killed on July 9, and the expedition was ruined.

Washington was a lieutenant-colonel under Braddock in the expedition against Fort Duquesne, in 1755, and in that of 1758. In the former he was chiefly instrumental in saving a portion of the British and provincial troops from utter destruction. At the battle near the Monongahela, where Braddock was killed, every officer but Washington was slain or wounded; and he, alone, led the survivors on a safe retreat. He was not injured during the battle. To his mother he wrote: "I luckily escaped unhurt, though I had four bullets through my coat, and two horses shot under me." To his brother he wrote: "By the all-powerful dispensation of Providence, I have been protected beyond all human probability or expectation. Death was levelling my companions on every side." An Indian chief, who, fifteen years afterwards, travelled a long way to see Wash

ington when he was in Ohio, said he had singled him out for death, and directed his fellows to do the same. He fired more than a dozen fair shots at him, but could not hit him. "We felt," said the chief, "that some Manitou guarded your life, and that you could not be killed."

CAPTURE OF FORT DUQUESNE.

The expedition of 1758 was commanded by Gen. John Forbes, who had about 9,000 men at his disposal at Fort Cumberland and Raystown. These included Virginia troops under Colonel Washington, the Royal Americans from South Carolina, and an auxiliary force of Cherokee Indians. Sickness and perversity of will and judgment on the part of Forbes caused delays almost fatal to the expedition. He was induced, by the advice of some Pennsylvania land speculators, to use the army in constructing a military road farther north than the one made by Braddock. Washington, who knew the country well, strongly advised against this measure, but he was unheeded, and so slow was the progress of the troops towards their destination, that in September, when it was known that there were not more than 800 men at Duquesne, Forbes, with 6,000 troops, was yet east of the Alleghany Mountains. Major Grant, with a scouting-party of Colonel Bouquet's advance corps, was attacked (Sept. 21), defeated, and made a prisoner. Still Forbes went creeping on, wasting precious time, and exhausting the patience and respect of Washington and other energetic officers; and when Bouquet joined the army it was 50 miles from Fort Duquesne. The winter was approaching, the troops were discontented, and a council of war was called, to which Forbes intended to propose an abandonment of the enterprise, when three prisoners gave information of the extreme weakness of the French garrison. Washington was immediately sent forward, and the whole army prepared to follow. When the Virginians were within a day's march of the fort, they were discovered by some Indians, who so alarmed the garrison by an exaggerated account of the number of the approaching troops that the guardians of Fort Duquesne, reduced to 500, set it on fire (Nov. 24), and fled down the Ohio in boats with such haste and confusion that they left everything behind them. The Virginians took possession the next day, and the name of the fortress was changed to Fort Pitt, in honor of the great English statesman.

Durand, Asher Brown, painter and engraver; born in Jefferson, N. J., Aug. 21, 1796. His paternal ancestors were Huguenots. His father was a watch-maker, and in his shop he learned engraving. In 1812 he became an apprentice to Peter Maverick, an engraver on copper-plate, and became his partner in 1817. Mr. Durand's first large work was his engraving on copper of Trumbull's *Declaration of Independence.* He was engaged upon it a

year, and it gave him a great reputation. In 1835 he abandoned that art for painting. Mr. Durand was president of the National Academy of Design for several years. He died in South Orange, N. J., Sept. 17, 1886.

Durand, EDWARD DANA, statistician; born in Romeo, Mich., Oct. 18, 1871; was secretary of the United States Industrial Commission in 1900–02; Deputy Commissioner of Corporations in 1907–09; then became Director of the Census Bureau, and as such had charge of the thirteenth census of the United States (1910). See CENSUS.

Durant, HENRY TOWLE, philanthropist; born in Hanover, N. H., Feb. 20, 1822; graduated at Harvard College in 1841; admitted to the bar in 1846; and became connected with Rufus Choate and other celebrated lawyers in practice in Boston. Through his efforts Wellesley College was founded at a cost of $1,000,000. It was opened in 1875, and was maintained by him at an expense of $50,000 a year until his death. He died in Wellesley, Mass., Oct. 3, 1881.

Durell, EDWARD HENRY, jurist; born in Portsmouth, N. H., July 14, 1810; graduated at Harvard in 1831; removed to New Orleans in 1836; resisted secession in 1861; president of the Louisiana constitutional convention in 1864. Among his publications are *History of Seventeen Years from 1860 to 1877; Essay on the History of France,* etc. He died in Schoharie, N. Y., March 29, 1887.

Durrie, DANIEL STEELE, antiquarian; born in Albany, N. Y., Jan. 2, 1819; appointed librarian of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin in 1858; published genealogies of the Steele and Holt families; also a *History of Madison, Wis.; History of Missouri;* and the *Wisconsin Biographical Dictionary.* He died in 1892.

Duryee, ABRAM, military officer; born in New York City, April 29, 1815; joined the State militia in 1833; became colonel of the 27th Regiment, now the 7th, in 1849; commanded his regiment during the Astor Place riots. In April, 1861, he raised a regiment known as "Duryee's Zouaves," which took part in the battle of Big Bethel. In 1861 he was promoted to brigadier-general, and served with the Army of the Potomac until 1863, when he resigned. He died in New York City, Sept. 27, 1890.

Dustin, HANNAH, heroine; born about 1660; married Thomas Dustin, of Haverhill, Mass., Dec. 3, 1677. When, in the spring of 1697, the French and Indians devastated the New England frontier settlements, Haverhill, within 30 miles of Boston, suffered severely, forty of its inhabitants being killed or carried into captivity. Among the latter were a part of the family of Thomas Dustin, who was in the field when the savages first appeared. Mounting his horse, he hastened to his house to bear away his wife, eight children, and nurse to a place of safety. His youngest child was only a week old. He ordered his other children to flee. While he was lifting his wife and her babe from the bed the Indians attacked his house. "Leave me," cried the mother, "and fly to the protection of the other children." Remounting his horse, he soon overtook the precious flock, and, placing himself between them and the pursuing Indians, he defended them so valiantly with his gun that he pressed back the foe. Meanwhile the savages had entered the house, ordered the feeble mother to rise and follow them, killed the infant, and set fire to the dwelling. Half dressed, she was compelled to go with her captors through melting snow in their hasty retreat, accompanied by her nurse. They walked 12 miles the first day without shoes, and were compelled to lie on the wet ground at night, with no covering but the cold, gray sky. This was repeated day after day, until they reached an island in the Merrimac 6 miles above Concord, N. H., the home of the leader of the savages, who claimed Mrs. Dustin and her nurse as his captives. They were lodged with his family, which consisted of two men, three women, seven children, and a captive English boy, who had been with them more than a year. They were told that they would be compelled to "run the gantlet"—that is, be stripped naked, and run for their lives between two files of Indian men, women, and children, who would beat them and wound them with hatchets.

The two women resolved not to endure the indignity. Mrs. Dustin planned a means of escape, and leagued the nurse and the English boy with her in the exe-

cution of it. Believing in the faithfulness of the lad and the timidity of the women, the Indians did not keep watch at night. Through inquiries made by the lad, Mrs. Dustin learned how to kill a man instantly, and to take off his scalp. Before daylight one morning, when the whole family were asleep, Mrs. Dustin and her companions instantly killed ten of the slumberers, she killing her captor, and the boy despatching the man who told him how to do it. A squaw and a child fled to the woods and escaped. After scuttling all the boats but one, they fled in it down the river, with provisions from the wigwam. Mrs. Dustin remembered they had not scalped the victims, so, returning, they scalped the slain savages, and bore their trophies away in a bag, as evidence of the truth of the story they might relate to their friends. At Haverhill they were received as persons risen from the dead. Mrs. Dustin found her husband and children safe. Soon afterwards she bore to the governor, at Boston, the gun, tomahawk, and ten scalps, and the general court gave these two women $250 each, as a reward for their heroism. They received other tokens of regard. The island where the scene occurred is called Dustin's Island. On its highest point citizens of Massachusetts and New Hampshire erected a commemorative monument in 1874. On it are inscribed the names of Hannah Dustin, Mary Neff, and Samuel Leonardson, the latter the English lad.

HANNAH DUSTIN ESCAPING FROM THE INDIANS.

Dutch Gap Canal. There is a sharp bend in the James River between the Appomattox and Richmond, where the stream, after flowing several miles, approaches itself within 500 yards. To flank Confederate works and to shorten the passage of the river 6 or 7 miles, General Butler set a large force of colored troops at work, in the summer of 1864, in cutting a canal for the passage of vessels across this peninsula. This canal was completed, with the exception of blowing out the bulkhead, at the close of December, 1864. It was 500 yards in length, 60 feet in width at top, and 65 below the surface of the bluff. It was excavated 15 feet below high-water mark. On New Year's Day, 1865, a mine of 12,000 lbs. of gunpowder was exploded under the bulkhead, and the water rushed through, but not in sufficient depth for practical purposes, for the mass of the bulkhead (left to keep out the water) fell back into the opening after the explosion. The canal was then swept by Confederate cannon, and could not be dredged. As a military operation, it was

a failure. It was excavated in 140 days, and has since been made navigable. While a greater part of the National naval force on the James River was on the expedition against FORT FISHER (*q. v.*), the Confederates sent down from the shelter of Fort Darling, on Drewry's Bluff, a squadron of vessels for the purpose of breaking the obstructions at the lower end of the Dutch Gap Canal, and destroying the pontoon bridges below, so as to separate the National troops lying on both sides of the James. The squadron moved silently under cover of darkness, but was observed and fired upon when passing Fort Brady. The vessels responded, and dismounted a 100-pounder Parrott gun in the fort. The *Fredericksburg* broke the obstructions at Dutch Gap and passed through, but two other iron-clads and an unarmored gunboat grounded. At dawn the gunboat *Drewry* had been abandoned, and a shell from a National battery exploded her magazine, when she was blown to a wreck. So hot was the fire from the shore that the voyage of the Confederate vessels was checked, and all but the ruined *Drewry* fled up the river.

Dutch West India Company. The Dutch East India Company was a great monopoly, the profits of the trade of which were enormous. Their ships whitened the Indian seas, and in one year the shareholders received in dividends the amount of three-fourths of their invested capital. It was believed that trade with the Western Continent might be made equally profitable, and as early as 1607 William Ussellinx suggested a similar association to trade in the West Indies. The States-General of Holland were asked to incorporate such an association. The government, then engaged in negotiations for a truce with Spain, refused; but when that truce expired, in 1621, a charter was granted to a company of merchants which gave the association almost regal powers to "colonize, govern, and protect" New Netherland for the term of twenty-four years. It was ordained that during that time none of the inhabitants of the United Provinces (the Dutch Republic) should be permitted to sail thence to the coasts of Africa between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope; nor to the coasts of America or the West Indies between Newfoundland and the Strait of Magellan, except with the permission of the company. It was vested with sovereign powers, to be exercised in the name of the States-General, and to report to that body, from time to time, all its transactions. The government of the company was vested in five separate chambers of managers, the principal one at Amsterdam, and the other four in as many separate cities. General executive powers were intrusted to a board of nineteen delegates, called the College of Nineteen, in which one delegate represented the States-General, by whom the company was guaranteed protection, and received assistance to the amount of $380,000.

The company was organized on June 21, 1623; and with such a charter, such powers, and such privileges, it began the settlement and development of New Netherland. The English claimed the domain, and the Dutch hastened to acquire eminent domain, according to the policy of England, by planting permanent settlements there; and the same year (1623) they sent over thirty families, chiefly Walloons, to Manhattan. The management of New Netherland was intrusted to the Amsterdam chamber. Their traffic was successful. In 1624 the exports from Amsterdam, in two ships, were worth almost $10,000, and the returns from New Netherland were considerably more. The company established a trading-post, called Fort Orange, on the site of Albany, and traffic was extended eastward to the Connecticut River, and even to Narraganset Bay; northward to the Mohawk Valley, and southward and westward to the Delaware River and beyond. To induce private capitalists to engage in the settlement of the country, the company gave lands and special privileges to such as would guarantee settlement and cultivation. These became troublesome landholders, and in 1638 the rights of the company, it was claimed, were interfered with by a settlement of Swedes on the Delaware. In 1640 the company established the doctrines and rituals of the Reformed Church in the United Provinces as the only theological formula to be allowed in public worship in New Netherland. The spirit of popular freedom,

which the Dutch brought with them from Holland, asserted its rights under the tyranny of WILLIAM KIEFT (*q. v.*), and a sort of popular assembly was organized at New Amsterdam. Its affairs in New Netherland were necessarily under the direct management of a director-general or governor, whose powers, as in the case of Kieft and Stuyvesant, were sometimes so arbitrarily exercised that much popular discontent was manifested, and their dealings with their neighbors were not always satisfactory to the company and the States-General; yet, on the whole, when we consider the spirit of the age, the colony, which, before it was taken possession of by the English in 1664, was of a mixed population, was managed wisely and well; and the Dutch West India Company was one of the most important instruments in planting the good seed from which our nation has sprung.

Dutton, CLARENCE EDWARD, military officer; born in Wallingford, Conn., May 15, 1841; graduated at Yale College in 1860; served in the National army in 1862–64; became a second lieutenant of ordnance, Jan. 20, 1864; promoted major May 1, 1890; retired Feb. 7, 1901. After the close of the Civil War he was assigned to duty with the United States Geological Survey. He was retired at his own request, after 30 years of service, in 1901. His publications include *High Plateaus of Utah; Hawaiian Volcanoes; The Charleston Earthquake of 1886; Tertiary History of the Grand Cañon District; Mount Taylor and the Zuñi Plateau; The Cascades*, etc. He died Jan. 4, 1912.

Duval, GABRIEL, statesman; born in Prince George county, Md., Dec. 6, 1752; was a member of Congress, 1794–96, when he resigned upon his appointment as judge of the Supreme Court of Maryland. In 1811 he was appointed to the United States Supreme Court and served until 1836, when he resigned. He died in Prince George county, March 6, 1844.

Duyckinck, EVERT AUGUSTUS, author; born in New York City, Nov. 23, 1816; graduated at Columbia College in 1835. His father was a successful publisher, and Evert early showed a love for books and a taste for literary pursuits. In December, 1840, he commenced the publication of *Arcturus: a Journal of Books and Opinions*, in connection with Cornelius Matthews, which was continued about a year and a half. He contributed to the early numbers of the New York *Review*. In 1847, in connection with his brother George, he commenced the *Literary World*, a periodical which continued (with an interval of a year and five months) until the close of 1853. In 1856 the brothers completed the *Cyclopædia of American Literature*, in 2 volumes, a work of great research and value. To this Evert added a supplement in 1865. His other important works are, *Wit and Wisdom of Sidney Smith; National Portrait-Gallery of Eminent Americans; History of the War for the Union; History of the World from the Earliest Period to the Present Time;* and *Portrait-Gallery of Eminent Men and Women of Europe and America* (2 volumes). Mr. Duyckinck's latest important literary labor was in the preparation, in connection with WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT (*q. v.*), of a new and thoroughly annotated edition of Shakespeare's writings. Evert died in New York City, Aug. 13, 1878. His brother, GEORGE LONG, was born in New York City, Oct. 17, 1823; graduated at the University of the City of New York in 1843. Besides his assistance in the conduct of the *Literary World* and the preparation of the *Cyclopædia of American Literature*, he published biographies of George Herbert (1858), Bishop Thomas Ken (1859), Jeremy Taylor (1860), and Bishop Latimer (1861). He died in New York City March 30, 1863.

Dwight, THEODORE, journalist; born in Northampton, Mass., Dec. 15, 1764; was a grandson of the eminent theologian Jonathan Edwards; became eminent as a lawyer and political writer; was for many years in the Senate of Connecticut; and in 1806–7 was in Congress, where he became a prominent advocate for the suppression of the slave-trade. During the War of 1812–15 he edited the *Mirror*, at Hartford, the leading Federal newspaper in Connecticut; and was secretary of the HARTFORD CONVENTION (*q. v.*) in 1814, the proceedings of which he published in 1833. He published the Albany *Daily Advertiser* in 1815, and was the founder, in 1817, of the New York *Daily*

Advertiser, with which he was connected until the great fire in 1835, when he retired, with his family, to Hartford. Mr. Dwight was one of the founders of the American Bible Society. He was one of the writers of the poetical essays of the "Echo" in the Hartford *Mercury*. He was also the author of a *Dictionary of Roots and Derivations*. He died in New York City, July 12, 1846.

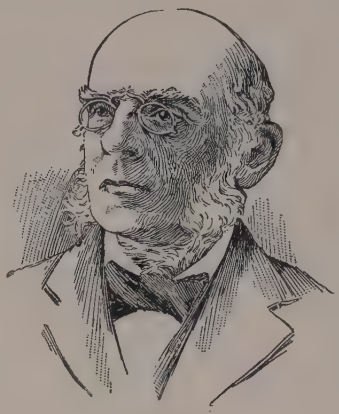
Dwight, THEODORE, author; born in Hartford, Conn., March 3, 1796; graduated at Yale College in 1814; settled in Brooklyn, N. Y., in 1833. In association with George White it is said that he induced about 9,000 people to leave the East and settle in Kansas. He was the author of a *New Gazetteer of the United States* (with William Darby); *History of Connecticut; The Kansas War: or the Exploits of Chivalry in the Nineteenth Century; Autobiography of General Garibaldi*, etc. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Oct. 16, 1866.

Dwight, THEODORE WILLIAM, educator and jurist; born in Catskill, N. Y., July 18, 1822; graduated at Hamilton College in 1840; appointed Professor of Municipal Law in Columbia in 1858; Professor of Constitutional Law in Cornell in 1868, and lecturer on constitutional law in Amherst in 1869; appointed a judge of the

THEODORE WILLIAM DWIGHT.

commission of appeals in January, 1874. Professor Dwight was the most distinguished teacher of law in the United States. He died in Clinton, N. Y., June 28, 1892.

Dwight, TIMOTHY; born in Norwich, Conn., Nov. 16, 1828; graduated at Yale in 1849; tutored at Yale 1851–55; Profes-



TIMOTHY DWIGHT.

sor of Sacred Literature and New Testament Greek at Yale, 1858–86; president of Yale University, 1886–99, when he resigned the office.

Dwight, TIMOTHY, educator; born in Northampton, Mass., May 14, 1752; graduated at Yale College in 1769, and was a tutor there from 1771 to 1777, when he became an army chaplain, and served until October, 1778. In 1781 and 1786 was a member of the Connecticut legislature. In 1783 he was a settled minister at Greenfield and principal of an academy there; and from 1795 until his death was president of Yale College. He published *Travels in New England and New York*, in 4 volumes. He died in New Haven, Conn., Jan. 11, 1817.

Dyer, DAVID PATTERSON, lawyer; born in Henry county, Va., Feb. 12, 1838; removed to Missouri in 1841; educated at St. Charles College; admitted to the bar in 1859, and practised till 1875. He was a member of Congress in 1869–71; appointed United States attorney in 1875; removed to St. Louis; prosecuted the great "Whisky Ring" in 1875–76; was defeated for governor of Missouri in 1880; United States attorney for the eastern district of Missouri in 1902–07; then district judge for the same district from 1907 to the present time.

Dyer, ELIPHALET, jurist; born in

Windham, Conn., Sept. 28, 1721; graduated at Yale College in 1740; became a lawyer; and was a member of the Connecticut legislature from 1745 to 1762. He commanded a regiment in the French and Indian War; was made a member of the council in 1762; and, as an active member of the Susquehanna Company, went to England as its agent in 1763. Mr. Dyer was a member of the Stamp Act Congress in 1765, and was a member of the first Continental Congress in 1774. He remained in that body during the entire war excepting in 1779. He was judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut in 1766, and was chief-justice from 1789 to 1793. He died in Windham, May 13, 1807. Judge Dyer is alluded to in the famous doggerel poem entitled *Lawyers and Bullfrogs*, the introduction to which avers that at Old Windham, in Connecticut, after a long drought, a frog-pond became almost dry, and a terrible battle was fought one night by the frogs to decide which should keep possession of the remaining water. Many "thousands were defunct in the morning." There was an uncommon silence for hours before the battle commenced, when, as if by a preconcerted agreement, every frog on one side of the ditch raised the war-cry, "*Colonel Dyer! Colonel Dyer!*" and at the same instant, from the opposite side, resounded the adverse shout of "*Elderkin too! Elderkin too!*" Owing to some peculiarity in the state of the atmosphere, the sounds seemed to be overhead, and the people of Windham were greatly frightened. The poet says:

"This terrible night the parson did fright
His people almost in despair;
For poor Windham souls among the beanpoles
He made a most wonderful prayer.
Lawyer Lucifer called up his crew;
Dyer and Elderkin, you must come, too;
Old Colonel Dyer you know well enough,
He had an old negro, his name was Cuff."

Dyer, MARY, Quaker martyr; was the wife of a leading citizen of Rhode Island. Having embraced the doctrines and discipline of the Friends, or Quakers, she became an enthusiast, and went to Boston, whence some of her sect had been banished, to give her "testimony to the truth." In that colony the death penalty menaced those who should return after banishment. Mary was sent away and returned, and was released while going to the gallows with Marmaduke Stevenson with a rope around her neck. She unwillingly returned to her family in Rhode Island; but she went back to Boston again for the purpose of offering up her life to the cause she advocated, and she was hanged in 1660. Mary had once been whipped on her bare back through the streets of Boston, tied behind a cart.

Dyer, OLIVER, author; born in Porter, N. Y., April 26, 1824; was educated at the Genesee Wesleyan Seminary, Lima, N. Y.; taught school; and later lectured on and taught the Isaac Pitman system of phonography. In 1848 he became a reporter in the United States Senate; later studied law and practised for a short time, abandoning it to devote himself to journalism; and was on the staffs of the *Tribune*, *Sun*, and *Ledger* of New York. He was ordained in the Swedenborgian Church in 1876, and had charge of a church in Mount Vernon. He was author of *The Wickedest Man in New York; Great Senators of the United States Forty Years Ago; Life of Andrew Jackson;* and *Sketch of Henry W. Grady.* He died in 1907.

Dynamite Outrages. One of the most sensational events in the history of industrial labor in the United States began at Indianapolis, Ind., on April 22, 1911, when John J. McNamara, secretary-treasurer of the International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers, was arrested on a charge of murder in connection with the explosion that wrecked the building of *The Times* newspaper at Los Angeles, Cal., on Oct. 1, 1910, when twenty-one persons were killed, and a property loss of $1,000,000 was sustained. This arrest was soon followed by that of his brother, James B. McNamara and Ortie E. McManigal; by the extradition of all three to Los Angeles; and by their indictment on May 4 following by the grand jury of that city. These proceedings were followed by the arrest in Indianapolis of William J. Burns, the detective who had worked up the case, and several legal representatives of Los Angeles, on a charge of having kidnapped the McNamaras and McManigal; their release on

bail; the discovery of considerable quantities of dynamite sticks hidden in various places; the confession of McManigal, implicating the McNamaras and disclosing methods of dynamite outrages, and the pledge of ample funds for the defence of the accused. The McNamaras and many conspicuous labor leaders declared the proceedings—so far as here outlined—the result of a conspiracy by capital against organized labor.

The general public had been aware for several years of numerous mysterious wreckings of buildings, bridges, viaducts, and other large public, private, and corporate structures by dynamite, but as none of the perpetrators of such outrages had been apprehended, the incidents were usually attributed to "some labor trouble," and then passed out of mind. The disclosures in the Los Angeles case, however, threw a new light on the subject, and this was intensified by the publication of a list of seventy dynamite outrages that had occurred between the summer of 1905 and mid-March, 1911, compiled by the National Erectors' Association. Commenting on this list the New York *Times* said:

"Practically no part of the United States has been free from dynamite outrages during the last few years. In nearly all cases there was a careful preparation, showing that the outrages were planned and executed by men who knew their business.

"Many of the outrages entailed a loss of life, and all caused considerable financial losses. Contractors, in some cases, have been driven into bankruptcy because of the lack of confidence in their ability to construct without disaster, and some contractors have been compelled to put their work in other hands.

"Planning of a professional nature has been a striking feature of all the outrages. In numerous instances clocks operating the explosives were set to cause explosions in different parts of the country at exactly the same minute. Homes have been endangered, although in most cases the bombs failed either to explode or were found in time to prevent disaster."

After spending ten weeks in the county jail at Los Angeles, John J. and James B. McNamara pleaded "not guilty" to nineteen charges of murder on July 12, Judge Walter Bordwell having overruled every point advanced by the defence for the quashing of the indictments. The task of selecting a jury proved a formidable one, owing to objections interposed by counsel on both sides. By the middle of November 325 men had been drawn and only five accepted, and it was then believed that the jury-box would not be filled before the end of the year.

In the meanwhile (October 28) Charles W. Miller, United States attorney at Indianapolis, Ind., filed a petition in the County Criminal Court, charging that a conspiracy had existed to unlawfully transport dynamite and nitroglycerine on passenger trains engaged in interstate commerce from that city through Indiana, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Missouri, and California to Los Angeles, and asking possession of the incriminating evidence seized by the police at the offices in that city of the International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers, of which John J. McNamara was secretary, and at other places in Indianapolis, to be used in a federal grand jury investigation.

By December 1, however, Detective Burns had woven such a close net-work of evidence around the accused that on that day James B. McNamara pleaded guilty to murder in the first degree, in open court, in having placed the dynamite under the Times Building in Los Angeles, and his brother, John J. McNamara, pleaded guilty to having caused a similar explosion at the Llewellyn Iron Works, also in Los Angeles, from which no fatalities occurred. On Dec. 5, Judge Bordwell sentenced James B. McNamara to imprisonment for life and his brother to fifteen years. In making his written confession James B. McNamara declared that on the night of Sept. 30, he had placed a suitcase containing sixteen sticks of 80-percent. dynamite, set to explode at one o'clock the next morning, in Ink Alley, a portion of the Times Building; that it was his intention to injure the building and scare the owners; and that he did not intend to take the life of any one.

After the sensational termination of the McNamara trial in Los Angeles the federal grand jury there, as well as that

at Indianapolis, Ind., began a rigid inquiry to discover the person or persons "higher up" who had planned, sanctioned, and supplied the funds for the dynamiting operations in various parts of the country. In this inquiry they were at first greatly aided by Ortie E. McManigal, who had confessed to having personally caused many explosions by direction of James B. McNamara, and later by several former employes of McNamara at his headquarters in Indianapolis, and the seizure of a large quantity of records and other evidence, besides many sticks of dynamite that had been secreted in out-of-the-way places.

The following are brief statements from the list compiled by the National Erectors' Association:

DYNAMITE OUTRAGES, 1905–11.

One of the earliest of the attacks was in the summer of 1905, when a watchman on a bridge under construction for the Central Vermont Railroad at Miller's Falls, Mass., was assaulted. The following morning the foreman found thirteen sticks of dynamite on the bridge. The fuse had been lighted, but had become extinguished.

During the same summer an engineer found dynamite in the firebox of a hoisting engine used in the construction of the Kimberley Avenue bridge, over the West River, for the city of New Haven, Conn.

An attempt was made on March 12, 1906, to dynamite the Hotel Frankfort, Cleveland, Ohio, where a number of employes of a bridge construction company were boarding. The dynamite exploded, but the wrecked part of the building was reached in time to prevent destruction by fire.

Three sticks of dynamite were discovered in the firebox of a hoisting engine used in the construction of the Arcade Building in Cleveland on April 2, 1906. The fuse had been attached and, it appeared, had been lighted.

An attempt was made one month later to wreck a derrick used in constructing a bridge on the Buffalo & Susquehanna Railroad. The attempt was frustrated.

A derrick used in the construction of the Central Railroad of New Jersey was dynamited and destroyed on May 31, 1906.

Dynamite was found on a derrick used in the construction of a Nickel Plate viaduct on Sept. 25, 1905. A time clock was found also. The infernal machine probably had been dropped from a passing train, as the package had been broken open and the dynamite scattered.

During the construction of a viaduct for the P., V. & C. Railroad, near Clairton, Penn., a derrick car was dynamited. The outrage was committed on Oct. 12, 1906. A watchman was decoyed away from the place and assaulted.

Dynamite exploded under a bascule bridge over the Cuyahoga River at Whiskey Island, near Cleveland, Ohio, on Dec. 30, 1906. The damage was slight.

In September, 1907, a hoisting engine, used at the plant of the American Steel and Wire Company, Cleveland, was dynamited and destroyed. The dynamiting was done at night.

Early in the morning of Oct. 30, 1907, an attempt was made to wreck the Baltimore & Ohio bridge at Youngstown, Ohio. The dynamite exploded, but the bridge was not wrecked.

Two months later dynamite was placed under a railroad bridge on the Newark Branch of the Erie Railroad, near Harrison, N. J. The dynamite damaged one of the girders and blew out thirty-six square feet of buckle plate. The damage was $2,000.

Two tons of material which was to have been used on the Parma Road Bridge on the Cleveland Short Line was damaged to such an extent on Dec. 31, 1907, that it had to be replaced. There was a loss of $500.

On the same night ten tons of material for the construction of the L. E. & P. Railroad's Mill Creek viaduct was damaged and a loss of $1,200 resulted.

Several girders for the Eagle Avenue Bridge, Cleveland, were dynamited the night of Jan. 17, 1908, and considerable surrounding property was damaged.

Thirty sticks of dynamite were found in various parts of a derrick-car used in the construction of a Chicago & Northwestern Railroad bridge over the Mississippi River at Clinton, Iowa, on Feb. 16, 1908. Only a small part of the dynamite exploded. The damage was $2,000.

A month later a derrick-car on the

Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad at Buena Park, Chicago, was dynamited.

During the same month a charge of dynamite was placed on a drawbridge at Perth Amboy, N. J., causing a $1,500 loss.

A bridge near Bradshaw, Md., was damaged the same night.

A hoisting crane used in the construction of the Chelsea Piers, New York, was damaged to the extent of $1,000 the night of April 5, 1908.

A loss of $1,000 was caused on April 13, 1908, when dynamite was placed under material prepared for the Philadelphia Elevated Railroad.

An explosion of dynamite caused a loss of $2,000, April 26, 1908, at a bridge at Fall River, Mass.

Dynamite caused a loss on May 3, 1908, to the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton Railroad's Miami River Bridge at Dayton, Ohio. Much of the material had to be replaced.

An attempt was made the night of May 21, 1908, to destroy a drawbridge over the Bronx River of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad. A watchman was assaulted and his cries caused the would-be perpetrators to flee. The men discarded a suit-case in their flight, containing 103 sticks of dynamite and two coils of fuse.

A bridge of the same company at Baychester, N. Y., was damaged to the extent of $1,500 early the next morning.

An apparent attempt was made the night of May 24, 1908, to destroy a Baltimore & Ohio bridge at Aiken, Md. A watchman pursued a man who was loitering about the bridge, and the fugitive tripped over a guy wire. The next morning five sticks of dynamite were found where he fell.

An attempt was made June 2, 1908, to dynamite a Baltimore & Ohio bridge at Perryville, Md. Four men approached the bridge, but were frightened away by a watchman, leaving dynamite behind them.

The same night an explosion of dynamite wrecked a steel derrick, twisted the rear wall of a big steel building out of shape, and did other damage at Cleveland, Ohio. Fourteen sticks of dynamite, unexploded, were found later with burned fuses attached.

The evening of June 15, 1908, a charge of dynamite exploded under a pile of material used in the construction of a bridge for the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad at Somerset, Mass., entailing a loss of about $1,000.

Two charges of dynamite were exploded on the bridge of the Lehigh Valley Railroad at Buffalo, N. Y., the night of July 1, 1908, weakening the structure and causing a loss of $1,500.

The Illinois Central Railroad bridge in Chicago was dynamited on Aug. 6, 1908. The loss was nearly $20,000.

The same night the Harrison Avenue viaduct at Louisville, Ky., was damaged by either dynamite or nitroglycerine.

Two charges of dynamite were exploded on the Eighteenth Street Bridge in St. Louis, Mo., on the morning of Aug. 9, 1908.

An attempt was made on Oct. 15, 1908, to destroy a bridge at Holyoke, Mass. Two watchmen found the burning fuse and put it out before any damage was done.

A charge of dynamite wrecked a portion of a bridge at Cleveland, Ohio, on Nov. 30, 1908. The damage was $500.

Dynamite wrecked a building in Kansas City, Mo., on Dec. 24, 1908.

A loss of $500 was caused at Indiana Harbor, Ind., on March 18, 1909, when a carload of steel was dynamited.

During the same month, at the same place, two packages of dynamite with a fuse attached were thrown from a Lake Shore freight train. No damage was done.

The southeast side of the new opera-house at Boston, Mass., was destroyed by dynamite March 27, 1909.

A part of a viaduct at Hoboken, N. J., and considerable surrounding property was damaged by dynamite on March 30, 1909. Several persons had narrow escapes, five or six being injured.

A derrick-car doing construction work at Kansas City, Mo., was dynamited on April 29, 1909.

The Cincinnati Southern bridge at Cincinnati was damaged by dynamite the next month.

Another attempt was made to wreck the same bridge on May 24, 1909, two charges of dynamite being exploded.

Considerable damage was done on June 7, 1909, to the New York Central Rail-

road's bridge across East Ferry Street, Buffalo, N. Y.

A loss of $2,000 was caused by the dynamiting of material awaiting delivery June 26, 1909, for the Pennsylvania Railroad bridge at Steubenville, Ohio.

The same night the Main Street viaduct at Kansas City, Mo., under construction, was dynamited.

A suit-case containing guncotton was exploded under a pile of steel girders in the yard of the Whitehead & Kales plant at Detroit, Mich., on June 9, 1909.

A third attempt to wreck the Cincinnati Southern's viaduct was made Aug. 12, 1909. The dynamite caused $700 damage.

Dynamite partly wrecked a railroad bridge in New York City, Aug. 15, 1909.

A month later dynamite destroyed a derrick used in the construction of a viaduct over the New York Central Railroad tracks at Buffalo, N. Y.

Another attempt on this same viaduct was made on Oct. 6, 1909.

Four buildings under construction by Albert von Spreckelsen in Indianapolis were damaged on Oct. 24, 1909. The total estimated loss was $13,000. The buildings were a telephone exchange, a library building, Mr. von Spreckelsen's planing-mill, and his barn.

A crane being used in the construction of a bridge near Cleveland, Ohio, was dynamited on Nov. 4, 1909, causing a loss of $40,000. A watchman was buried under the débris and narrowly escaped death.

A bomb was exploded under four cars of structural steel on a Michigan Southern side track in Chicago on Jan. 22, 1910. It is estimated that the damage was $3,000.

The plant of the Pacific Coast and Lumber Company, Oakland, Cal., was wrecked by dynamite during the summer of 1910, being the fourth time in two years.

An office building being erected in Seattle, Wash., was destroyed by dynamite in September, 1910.

Dynamite was used in two places in Peoria, Ill., on the night of Sept. 4, 1910. The plant of the Lucas Bridge and Iron Works was wrecked and the night watchman was injured seriously. Two carloads of steel girders for use in a railroad bridge at Peoria were dynamited. A two-gallon can of nitroglycerine was found hidden in the steel girders of the new railroad bridge the next day. A time clock had been set, but the explosion was prevented by faulty electrical connections. The clock had been set to discharge the nitroglycerine at the same hour the Lucas plant was destroyed. A bomb exploded at the plant of the Winslow Brothers' Company, at Chicago, on Sept. 15, 1910.

The Los Angeles *Times* building was destroyed on Oct. 1, 1910, twenty-one lives being lost. The property loss was $1,000,000. This was the worst disaster due to an explosive that had been recorded.

A search the next day disclosed dynamite near the home of Gen. Harrison Gray Otis, owner of *The Times*, and the home of the secretary of the Merchants' Association.

In the summer of 1910 dynamite was exploded in a new church structure at Clinton, Ind., and the building wrecked. Shortly before a bridge at the place was wrecked by dynamite.

On March 20, 1911, dynamite was exploded beneath a new wing of a hotel under construction at French Lick, Ind.

Early in the morning of March 24, 1911, dynamite exploded in the basement of the new court-house at Omaha, Neb., causing a large loss.

The same night the offices of the Caldwell & Drake Manufacturing Company at Columbus, Ind., were dynamited and destroyed. The plant was not damaged. The Omaha court-house was built by the Columbus concern.

Ore conveyors of Pickands & Mather of North Kendall, Ohio, were totally destroyed by dynamite on March 25, 1911.

St. Peter's Street (South Bend, Ind.) viaduct was dynamited on April 2, 1911. The same day an attempt to wreck Grand Trunk Bridge across St. Joseph River was thwarted.

The Springfield (Mass.) municipal building, in course of construction, was damaged by two dynamite explosions on April 4, 1911.

The Westchester & Boston Railway viaduct at Mount Vernon, N. Y., was wrecked by dynamite on Sept. 3, 1911.

The new Lyon County court-house in Yerington, Nev., built of re-enforced concrete, was damaged beyond repair by a dynamite explosion, Dec. 18, 1911.

E.

E Pluribus Unum. Its earliest occurrence is in a Latin poem called *Moretum*, which is ascribed to Virgil. It was suggested as the motto for the SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES (*q. v.*) by the committee of the Great Seal, consisting of Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and Thomas Jefferson, on Aug. 10, 1776.

Eads, JAMES BUCHANAN, engineer; born in Lawrenceburg, Ind., May 23, 1820. In 1861 he was employed by the national government to construct gunboats suitable for use in Western rivers. In the space of sixty-five days he constructed seven iron-clad gunboats. In 1862 he built six more; also heavy mortar-boats. At

JAMES BUCHANAN EADS.

the beginning of July, 1874, he completed the magnificent iron railroad bridge across the Mississippi at St. Louis. Then he pressed upon the attention of the government his plan for improving the navigation of the mouth of the Mississippi by jetties. He was authorized to undertake it (and was very successful), for which the government paid him $5,125,000. At the time of his death, in Nassau, N. P., March 8, 1887, he was engaged in the promotion of a project he had conceived of constructing a ship railway across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. In 1881 he received the Albert medal from the British Society of Arts, the first American to be thus honored.

The jetty system consists simply of a dike or embankment projecting into the water, whose purpose is to narrow the channel so that the natural action of the water will keep it clear of sediment or other obstruction. The Mississippi River is, at its mouth, 40 feet deep and 1¾ miles wide, and carries every minute 72,000,000 feet of water to the Gulf, which holds in solution nearly 20 per cent. of mud and sand. The river has three channels to the sea—the Southwest Pass, the Passe l'Outre, and the South Pass—the first carrying out about 50 per cent. of its water, the second 40 per cent., and the third 10 per cent. There is a bar at the mouth of each pass, and each has a channel through which large vessels may pass. This channel is about 1,200 feet wide and 50 feet deep in the large passes, and 600 feet wide and 35 feet deep in the small one. The swift and concentrated current keeps the channel open, but the bar is continually spreading outward, and as it thus spreads the water excavates a channel through it, though not of a uniform depth or width. Thus, a frequent dredging of the channel was necessary to prevent the continual grounding of vessels upon it. Captain Eads was the first to suggest that this laborious and expensive dredging process might be done away with by

the use of jetties. He reasoned that if the banks of the passage through the bar could be extended, not gradually, but immediately, into the deep water of the Gulf some 2 miles or more, it would produce force enough to excavate a channel the whole length of the bar. This project he undertook to carry out at his own expense, agreeing not to receive compensation for the work until it was completed; and the truth of his reasoning was proved by the results. In the winter of 1874–75 he laid his plan before Congress, and in March, 1875, a bill was passed empowering him to put it into execution. The work was begun in June, 1875. The jetties were laid out parallel with the current of the river, and at right angles with the Gulf current, extending with a slight curve 2¼ miles out from the mouth of the river. Piles were first driven in to mark the path of the jetties; then willows fastened together in enormous mattresses were sunk, and these filled in with stones and gravel. This work was done on the South Pass, the narrowest of the three channels of the Mississippi delta. Captain Eads wished to try his experiment on the Southwest Pass, the deepest and widest channel, but Congress would not permit him to do so. The work of making the South Pass jetties was completed July 9, 1879. A channel 30 feet deep, with a minimum width of 45 feet, had been made from the river to deep water in the Gulf. Five and a half million cubic yards of earth had been removed, mainly by the action of the strong current created by the jetty. In the construction of this important improvement the following amount of material had been used: Willow, 592,000 cubic yards; stone, 100,000 cubic yards; gravel, 10,000 cubic yards; concrete, 9,000 tons; piling and lumber, 12,000,000 feet. Captain Eads's plan has been proved to be very successful, for the banks of the jetty continue firm, and the channel is kept clear by the movement of the concentrated current between them.

PORT EADS, SOUTH PASS OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

Eagan, CHARLES PATRICK, military officer; born in Ireland in January, 1841; served through the Civil War in the 1st Washington Territory Infantry; was commissioned 2d lieutenant 9th United States Infantry in 1866; and became brigadier-general and commissary-general May 3, 1898. During the American-Spanish War he was in charge of the commissary department of the army, and in January, 1899, was tried by court-martial for criticising General Miles during an investigation into the character of supplies furnished to the army during the war; was suspended from rank and duty for six years on Feb. 9; and was restored and immediately retired Dec. 6, 1900.

Eagle, the standard of the Persian and the Roman; also adopted by Charlemagne with a second head as the standard of the holy Roman empire of Germany. The

eagle was the standard of France during the empire, as it is now of Austria, Russia, and Prussia. The great seal of the United States (see SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES) bears a shield on the breast of the eagle. The $10 gold coin of the United States is also called an eagle. It was first coined in 1794. No eagles were coined between 1805 and 1837. The $20 gold coin is popularly known as the double eagle.

Eagle, HENRY, naval officer; born in New York City, April 7, 1801; entered the navy in 1818; and had command of the bomb-vessel *Ætna* and also a part of the Gulf fleet during the Mexican War. At the beginning of the Civil War he carried important messages from Brooklyn to Washington. While in command of the *Monticello* he was engaged in the first naval engagement of the war, silencing the guns of Sewell's Point battery, Va., May 19, 1861. He was promoted commodore in 1862; retired in January, 1863. He died in November, 1882.

Eagle, JAMES PHILLIP, clergyman; born in Maury county, Tenn., Aug. 10, 1837; acquired a country-school and a collegiate education; served in the Confederate army in the Civil War, and attained the rank of colonel. After the war he became a Baptist minister and cotton-planter; was a member of the Arkansas legislature for four years; and of the constitutional convention in 1874; one of the commissioners to adjust the debt of the Brook-Baxter war over the governorship in 1874; governor of Arkansas in 1889–93. He died in Little Rock, Ark., Dec. 20, 1904.

Eames, WILBERFORCE, librarian; born in Newark, N. J., Oct. 12, 1855; appointed assistant in the Lenox Library, 1885; librarian in 1893. He is the author of many bibliographical books, among them an account of the early New England catechisms, a comparative edition of the various texts of Columbus's letter announcing the discovery of America, and editor of several volumes of Sabin's *Dictionary of Books Relating to America*, etc.

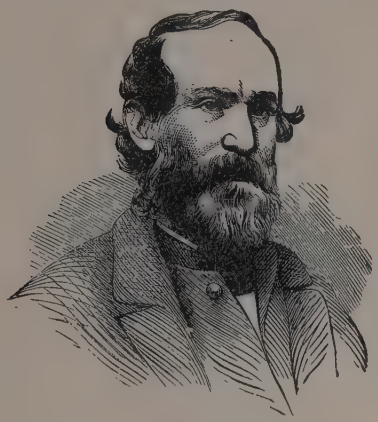
Earle, ALICE MORSE, author; born in Worcester, Mass., April 27, 1853. She has written extensively on the manners and customs of the colonial periods in New England and New York. Among her publications are *The Sabbath in Puritan New England; China-Collecting in America; Customs and Fashions in Old New England; Life of Margaret Winthrop; Diary of a Boston School-Girl; Costume of Colonial Times; Colonial Dames and Goodwives; Old Narragansett; Colonial Days in Old New York; Curious Punishments of Bygone Days; Home Life in Colonial Days; Child Life in Colonial Days; Coach and Tavern Days;* and was part author of *Early Prose and Verse; Historic New York; Chap Book Essays; Old-Time Gardens; Two Centuries of Costume in America*, etc.

Earle, PLINY, inventor; born in Leicester, Mass., Dec. 17, 1762; became connected with Edward Snow in 1785 in the manufacture of machine and hand cards for carding wool and cotton. Mr. Earle had first made them by hand, but afterwards by a machine of his own invention. OLIVER EVANS (*q. v.*) had already invented a machine for making card-teeth, which produced 300 a minute. In 1784 Mr. Crittenden, of New Haven, Conn., invented a machine which produced 86,000 card-teeth, cut and bent, in an hour. These card-teeth were put up in bags and distributed among families, in which the women and children stuck them in the leather. Leicester was the chief seat of this industry, and to that place SAMUEL SLATER (*q. v.*), of Rhode Island, went for card clothing for the machines in his cotton-mill. Hearing that Pliny Earle was an expert card-maker, he went to him and told him what he wanted. Mr. Earle invented a machine for pricking the holes in the leather—a tedious process by hand—and it worked admirably. A few years afterwards Eleazer Smith (see WHITTEMORE, AMOS) made a great improvement by inventing a machine that not only pricked the holes, but set the teeth more expertly than human fingers could do. About 1843 William B. Earle, son of Pliny, improved Smith's invention, and the machine thus produced for making card clothing proved the best ever made. By Mr. Earle's first invention the labor of a man for fifteen hours could be performed in fifteen minutes. Mr. Earle possessed extensive attainments in science and literature. He died in Leicester, Nov. 19, 1832.

Earle, THOMAS, statesman; born in Leicester, Mass., April 21, 1796; removed to

Philadelphia in 1817; he edited successively *The Columbian Observer, Standard, Pennsylvanian,* and *Mechanics' Free Press and Reform Advocate.* He was a member of the Pennsylvania constitution convention of 1837, and is believed to have drafted the new constitution. He died in Philadelphia, July 14, 1849.

Early, JUBAL ANDERSON, military officer; born in Franklin county, Va., Nov. 3, 1816; graduated from West Point in 1837, and served in the Florida war the same year. In 1838 he resigned his commission and studied law. In 1847 he



JUBAL A. EARLY.

served as a major-general of volunteers during the war with Mexico. He was appointed colonel in the Confederate service at the outbreak of the Civil War. He was one of the ablest and most successful of the Confederate generals, but was defeated at Winchester, Fisher's Hill, and Cedar Creek. At Gettysburg he commanded a division of Lee's army, and the second at Cedar Creek, where Sheridan arrived in time to rally his men after his famous ride. In 1888 he published a book giving the history of the last year of the Civil War, during which time he was in command of the army of the Shenandoah. He died in Lynchburg, Va., March 2, 1894.

Earthquakes. On June 1, 1638, between the hours of 3 and 4 P.M., the weather clear and warm, and the wind westerly, all New England was violently shaken by an internal convulsion of the earth. It came on with a noise like continued thunder, and the shock lasted about four minutes. The earth shook with such violence that in some places the people could not stand upright without difficulty, and many movable articles in the houses were thrown down. The earth was unquiet for twenty days afterwards. On Jan. 26, 1663, a heavy shock of earthquake was felt in New England and in New York, and was particularly severe in Canada, where it was recorded that "the doors opened and shut of themselves with a fearful clattering. The bells rang without being touched. The walls were split asunder. The floors separated and fell down. The fields put on the appearance of precipices, and the mountains seemed to be moving out of their places." Small rivers were dried up; some mountains appeared to be much broken and moved, and half-way between Quebec and Tadousac two mountains were shaken down, and formed a point of land extending some distance into the St. Lawrence. On Oct. 29, 1727, there was a severe earthquake in New England, lasting about two minutes. Its course seemed to be from the Delaware River, in the southwest, to the Kennebec, in the northeast, a distance of about 700 miles. It occurred at about twenty minutes before eleven o'clock in the morning, and the sky was serene. Pewter and china were cast from their shelves, and stone walls and chimney-tops were shaken down. In some places doors were burst open, and people could hardly keep their feet. There had been an interval of fifty-five years since the last earthquake in New England. On the same day the island of Martinique, in the West Indies, was threatened with total destruction by an earthquake which lasted eleven hours. On Nov. 18, 1755, an earthquake shock was felt from Chesapeake Bay along the coast of Halifax, Nova Scotia, about 800 miles; and in the interior it seems to have extended, from northwest to southeast, more than 1,000 miles. In Boston 100 chimneys were levelled with the roofs of the houses, and 1,500 shattered. The vane on the public market was thrown to the earth. At New Haven, Conn., the ground moved like waves of the sea; the houses shook and cracked, and many chimneys were thrown down. It oc-

A RESULT OF THE EARTHQUAKE IN CHARLESTON, S. C., AUG. 31, 1886.

curred at four o'clock in the morning, and lasted four and a half minutes. At the same time there was a great tidal-wave in the West Indies. In April, the same year, Quito, in South America, was destroyed by an earthquake, and the city of Lisbon, with 50,000 inhabitants, was swallowed up. One-half of Fez, in northern Africa, was destroyed, and more than 12,000 Arabs perished. The earth was violently shaken for 5,000 miles, from northern Africa to Scotland and Norway. In the island of Mitylene, in the Grecian Archipelago, 2,000 houses were overthrown. On Aug. 31, 1886, a large part of the city of Charleston, S. C., was destroyed, with many lives; on April 18, 1906, severe earthquakes, followed by extensive fires, caused an immense loss of property in San Francisco (*q. v.*); and on Dec. 28, 1908, an earthquake and tidal-wave wrought appalling havoc in Calabria and Sicily, Italy, practically destroyed the city of Messina, and caused a loss of over 200,000 lives.

East India Company, The. At the close of 1600, Queen Elizabeth granted a charter to a company of London merchants for the monopoly of the trade over a vast expanse of land and sea in the region of the East Indies, for fifteen years. The charter was renewed from time to time. The first squadron of the company (five vessels) sailed from Torbay (Feb. 15, 1601) and began to make footholds, speedily, on the islands and continental

shores of the East, establishing factories in many places, and at length obtaining a grant (1698) from a native prince of Calcutta and two adjoining villages, with the privilege of erecting fortifications. This was the first step towards the acquirement by the company, under the auspices of the British government, of vast territorial possessions, with a population of 200,000,000, over which, in 1877, Queen Victoria was proclaimed empress. The company had ruled supreme in India, with some restrictions, until 1858, when the government of that Oriental empire was vested in the Queen of England. Though the company was not abolished, it was shorn of all its political power, as it had been of its trade monopoly. The East India Company first introduced tea into England, in the reign of Charles II.

Eastman, HARVEY GRIDLEY, educator; born in Marshall, Oneida co., N. Y., Oct. 16, 1832; after attending the common schools of his neighborhood, completed his education at the State Normal School at Albany; and at the age of twenty-three opened a commercial school at Oswego, N. Y., having been a teacher in a similar school kept by his uncle in Rochester. In that school he first conceived the plan of a commercial or business college. On Nov. 3, 1859, Mr. Eastman opened a business college in Poughkeepsie, with a single pupil. In 1865 there were more than 1,700 students in the college. It was the first institution in which actual business was taught. Mr. Eastman was a very liberal and enterprising citizen, foremost in every judicious measure which promised to benefit the community in which he lived. He was twice elected mayor of the city, and held that office at the time of his death, in Denver, Col., July 13, 1878. On the day of his funeral the city was draped in mourning and nearly all places of business were closed, for he was eminently respected as a citizen and as a public officer.

Easton, JAMES, military officer; born in Hartford, Conn.: became a builder, and settled in Pittsfield, Mass., in 1763. Active in business and strong in intellect, he became a leader in public affairs there, and was chosen to a seat in the Massachusetts Assembly in 1774. He was also colonel in the militia, and held the position of leader of the minute-men of that town. When the expedition to assail Ticonderoga was organized in western Massachusetts, Colonel Easton joined Allen and Arnold in accomplishing the undertaking, and it was he who bore the first tidings of success to the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts. He died in Pittsfield, Mass.

Easton, JOHN, colonial governor; son of Nicholas; was governor of Rhode Island in 1690–95. He was the author of a *Narrative of the Causes which led to Philip's Indian War.*

Easton, LANGDON CHEVES, military officer; born in St. Louis, Mo., Aug. 10, 1814; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1838; and served in the Florida, Mexican, and Civil wars. In December, 1863, he was appointed chief quartermaster of the Army of the Cumberland; and in May, 1864, was assigned the same post in the army under General Sherman. He received the brevet of major-general in March, 1865; retired in January, 1881. He died in New York City, April 29, 1884.

Easton, NICHOLAS, colonial governor; born in 1593; came to America in 1634, and settled in Ipswich, Mass. In 1638 he removed to Rhode Island and erected the first house in Newport; was governor of Rhode Island and Providence in 1650–52. He died in Newport, R. I., Aug. 15, 1675.

Eastport, CAPTURE OF. Early in July, 1814, Sir Thomas M. Hardy sailed secretly from Halifax with a squadron, consisting of the *Ramillies* (the flag-ship), sloop *Martin*, brig *Borer*, the *Bream*, the bomb-ship *Terror*, and several transports, with troops under Col. Thomas Pilkington. The squadron entered Passamaquoddy Bay on the 11th, and anchored off Fort Sullivan, at Eastport, Me., then in command of Maj. Perley Putnam with a garrison of fifty men, having six pieces of artillery. Hardy demanded an instant surrender, giving Putnam only five minutes to consider. The latter promptly refused, but at the importunity of the alarmed inhabitants, who were indisposed to resist, he surrendered the post on condition that, while the British should take possession of all public property, private property should be respected. This was agreed to, and

1,000 armed men, with women and children, a battalion of artillery, and fifty or sixty pieces of cannon were landed on the main, when formal possession was taken of the fort, the town of Eastport, and all the islands and villages in and around Passamaquoddy Bay. Several vessels laden with goods valued at $300,000, ready to be smuggled into the United States, were seized. Sixty cannon were mounted, and civil rule was established under British officials. The British held quiet possession of that region until the close of the war.

Eaton, DORMAN BRIDGMAN, lawyer; born in Hardwick, Vt., June 27, 1823; graduated at the University of Vermont in 1848; was active in promoting civil service reform, and was a member of the United States Civil Service Commission for many years. He was the author of *Civil Service in Great Britain; The Independent Movement in New York,* etc.; and editor of the 7th edition of Kent's *Commentaries.* He died in New York City, Dec. 23, 1900.

Eaton, JOHN, educator; born in Sutton, N. H., Dec. 5, 1829; was graduated at Dartmouth College in 1854; applied himself to educational pursuits till 1859, when he entered Andover Theological Seminary, and in 1862, after his ordination, was appointed chaplain of the 27th Ohio Volunteer Infantry. In November of the same year he was made superintendent of freedmen, and later was given supervision of all military posts from Cairo to Natchez and Fort Smith. In October, 1863, he became colonel of the 63d United States Colored Infantry, and in March, 1865, was brevetted brigadier-general. He was editor of the Memphis *Post* in 1866–67, and State superintendent of public instruction in Tennessee in 1867–69. From 1871 to 1886 he was commissioner of the United States Bureau of Education, and then became president of Marietta College, O., where he remained until 1891; was president of the Sheldon Jackson College of Salt Lake City in 1895–98, when he was appointed inspector of public education in Porto Rico. He is author of *History of Thetford Academy; Mormons of Today; The Freedman in the War* (report); *Schools of Tennessee;* reports of the United States Bureau of Education for sixteen years, addresses, and numerous magazine articles. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 9, 1906.

Eaton, JOHN HENRY, statesman; born in Tennessee in 1787; was United States Senator from Tennessee in 1818–20; resigned to become Secretary of War under President Jackson; appointed governor of Florida Territory in 1834; resigned to become United States minister to Spain in 1836. He published a *Life of Andrew Jackson,* who was his colleague in the Senate for two years. He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 17, 1856. See EATON, MARGARET L. O'NEILL.

Eaton, MARGARET L. O'NEILL, daughter of William O'Neill, an Irish hotel-keeper in Washington; born in 1796, and after the death of her first husband, John B. Timberlake, she married John Henry Eaton, United States Senator from Tennessee. Upon the appointment of her husband to the office of Secretary of War, Mrs. Eaton was not recognized socially by the wives of the other members of the cabinet. President Jackson interfered, and demanded that Mrs. Eaton should receive the usual social courtesies. In consequence of these social quarrels, a disruption of the cabinet took place in 1831. After Mr. Eaton's death his widow married an Italian. She died in Washington, Nov. 8, 1879.

Eaton, THEOPHILUS, colonial governor; born in Stony Stratford, England, in 1591; was bred a merchant, and was for some years the English representative at the Court of Denmark. Afterwards he was a distinguished London merchant, and accompanied Mr. Davenport to New England in 1637. With him he assisted in founding the New Haven colony, and was chosen its first chief magistrate. Mr. Eaton filled the chair of that office continuously until his death, Jan. 7, 1658.

Eaton, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Woodstock, Conn., Feb. 23, 1764; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1790; entered the Continental army at the age of sixteen; and was discharged in 1783. In 1797 he was appointed American consul at Tunis, and arrived there in 1799. He acted with so much boldness and tact that he secured for his country the freedom of its commerce from attacks by

Tunisian cruisers. He returned to the United States in 1803; was appointed naval agent of the United States for the Barbary States, and accompanied the American fleet to the Mediterranean in 1804. He assisted Hamet Caramelli, the rightful ruler of Tripoli, in an attempt to recover his throne, usurped by his brother. Soon afterwards Eaton returned to the United States, and passed the remainder of his life at Brimfield. For his services to American commerce the State of Massachusetts gave him 10,000 acres of land. The King of Denmark gave him a gold box in acknowledgment of his services to commerce in general and for the release of Danish captives at Tunis. Burr tried to enlist General Eaton in his conspiracy, and the latter testified against him on his trial. He died in Brimfield, Mass., June 1, 1811. See TRIPOLI, WAR WITH.

Eben-Ezer or Amana Community. A communistic society originating in Germany at the beginning of the eighteenth century. They removed to America in 1843 and settled near Buffalo, N. Y., but removed to Iowa in 1855.

Eckford, HENRY, naval constructor; born in Irvine, Scotland, March 12, 1775; learned his profession with an uncle at Quebec, began business for himself in New York in 1796, and soon took the lead in his profession. During the War of 1812–15 he constructed ships-of-war on the Lakes with great expedition and skill; and soon after the war he built the steamship *Robert Fulton*, in which, in 1822, he made the first successful trip in a craft of that kind to New Orleans and Havana. Made naval constructor at Brooklyn in 1820, six ships-of-the-line were built after his models. Interference of the board of naval commissioners caused him to leave the service of the government, but he afterwards made ships-of-war for European powers and for the independent states of South America. In 1831 he built a war-vessel for the Sultan of Turkey, and, going to Constantinople, organized a navy-yard there, and there he died, Nov. 12, 1832.

Econochaca, BATTLE AT. Marching from Fort Deposit, in Butler county, Ala. (December, 1813), General Claiborne, pushing through the wilderness nearly 30 miles with horse and foot and friendly Choctaw Indians, arrived near Econochaca, or Holy Ground, a village built by Weathersford upon a bluff on the left bank of the Alabama, just below Powell's Ferry, Lowndes co., in an obscure place, as a "city of refuge" for the wounded and dispersed in battle, fugitives from their homes, and women and children. No path or trail led to it. It had been dedicated to this humane purpose by Tecumseh and the Prophet a few months before, and the Cherokees had been assured by them that, like Auttose, no white man could tread upon the ground and live. There the Indian priests performed their incantations, and in the square in the centre of the town the most dreadful cruelties had already been perpetrated. White prisoners and Creeks friendly to them had been there tortured and roasted. On the morning of Dec. 23 Claiborne appeared before the town. At that moment a number of friendly half-bloods of both sexes were in the square, surrounded by pine-wood, ready to be lighted to consume them, and the prophets were busy in their mummery. The troops advanced in three columns. The town was almost surrounded by swamps and deep ravines, and the Indians, regarding the place as holy, and having property there of great value, though partially surprised, prepared to fight desperately. They had conveyed their women and children to a place of safety deep in the forest. By a simultaneous movement, Claiborne's three columns closed upon the town at the same moment. So unexpected was the attack that the dismayed Indians broke and fled before the whole of the troops could get into action. Weathersford was there. The Indians fled in droves along the bank of the river, and by swimming and the use of canoes they escaped to the other side and joined their families in the forest. Weathersford, when he found himself deserted by his warriors, fled swiftly on a horse to a bluff on the river between two ravines, hotly pursued, when his horse made a mighty bound from it, and the horse and rider disappeared under the water for a moment, when both arose, Weathersford grasping the mane of his charger with one hand and his rifle with the other. He escaped in safety. Econochaca was plundered by the Choctaws and laid in ashes.

Fully 200 houses were destroyed, and thirty Indians killed. The Tennesseeans lost one killed and six wounded.

Ecuador. A republic in South America which claims ownership of the Galapagos Islands, 800 miles west of the coast. The United States has at various times sought to purchase one or more of these islands for a naval station, but public sentiment in Ecuador prevented the sale.

Eddis, WILLIAM, royalist; born in England about 1745; came to America in 1769, and settled in Annapolis, Md. He was surveyor of customs till the troubles between the colonies and the home government became so strong that it was unsafe for royalists to remain in the country. On June 11, 1776, he was ordered, with others, by the patriot "Committee of Observation," to leave the country before Aug. 1. His time, however, was extended, and he continued in office till April, 1777, when he returned to England. He was the author of *Letters from America.*

Eddy, MARY BAKER GLOVER, founder of Christian Science; born in Bow, N. H., July 16, 1821; studied natural philosophy, chemistry, astronomy, and other sciences, and several languages; was successively the wife of George W. Glover, Dr. Daniel Patterson, and Asa G. Eddy; was brought up in the Congregational Church; and began teaching the "Science of Mind Healing" in 1867. She published a large number of text and explanatory books, and established several periodicals in the English and German languages. She died in Boston, Mass., Dec. 3, 1910. In life she gave considerable sums of money toward the erection of churches, and bequeathed the bulk of her estate for the promotion of the cause. For details concerning the principles and establishment of Christian Science, see that title.

Eddy, RICHARD, author; born in Providence, R. I., June 21, 1828; removed to Clinton, N. Y., in 1848; studied theology there, and was ordained to the ministry of the Unitarian Church. In 1861–63 he was chaplain of the 60th New York Regiment; in 1878 was elected president of the Unitarian Historical Society; and became editor of the *Universalist Quarterly.* His publications include a *History of the 60th Regiment, New York State Volunteers; Universalism in America, a History; Alcohol in History;* and three sermons on Lincoln, entitled *The Martyr to Liberty.* He died in Gloucester, Mass., Aug. 16, 1906.

Eddy, THOMAS, "the American Howard"; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 5, 1758; engaged in the insurance business in New York in 1790, and made a large fortune; in 1793, with John Murray, was appointed by the Society of Friends to visit the Indians in New York State; in 1796, with Philip Schuyler and Ambrose Spencer, he presented a bill in the legislature for establishing a penitentiary system, which was adopted; in 1815 was a founder of the Bloomingdale Insane Asylum; and was also one of the originators of the New York Savings Bank and the New York Bible Society, and a conspicuous promoter of the Erie Canal. He published *State Prisons of New York.* He died in New York City, Sept. 16, 1827.

Eden, CHARLES, colonial governor; born in England in 1673; appointed governor of North Carolina, July 13, 1713. During his administration he arrested the pirate, Edward Teach, usually called "Black-Beard." He died in North Carolina, March 17, 1722.

Eden, RICHARD. In 1554 he published his *Treatyse of the Newe India,* and two years later his *Decades of the New World,* the latter of which was very popular among all classes of people in England. Eden was at the bedside of SEBASTIAN CABOT (*q. v.*) when he died.

Eden, SIR ROBERT, royal governor; born in Durham, England. Succeeding Governor Sharpe as royal governor of Maryland in 1768, he was more moderate in his administration than his predecessors. He complied with the orders of Congress to abdicate the government. He went to England, and at the close of the war returned to recover his estate in Maryland. He had married a sister of Lord Baltimore, and was created a baronet, Oct. 19, 1776. He died in Annapolis, Md., Sept. 2, 1786.

Eden Station, a locality in Effingham county, Ga., near the Ogeechee River. When, in the early part of December, 1864, the Federal army under Sherman continued its march down the peninsula between the Ogeechee and Savannah rivers,

it became apparent to General Hardee, who held Savannah with 15,000 men, that the city was to be Sherman's objective point. A line of works, stretching from river to river, had been erected to delay the Federal advance; and to prevent an attack on the Savannah & Gulf Railroad, which was employed to its utmost capacity in taking supplies and reinforcements to the city, a force was sent across the Ogeechee to engage the Federal advance, comprising parts of the Fifteenth and Seventeenth Corps. The greater part of the latter, however, had crossed to the east bank of the Ogeechee, near Eden Station, on Dec. 7, and for two days it held the Confederates in check while the Federals under General Corse pushed forward between the Little and Great Ogeechee, thirteen miles in advance of the main column, to the canal connecting the Ogeechee and Savannah rivers. See GEORGIA.

Edenton, town, former port of entry, and capital of Chowan county, N. C.; on a bay opening into Albemarle Sound; 130 miles e. by n. of Raleigh; is chiefly engaged in lumbering and shad and herring fisheries; was founded in 1815 and named after Gen. Charles Eden; and for many years was the capital of the colony.

Edes, BENJAMIN, journalist; born in Charlestown, Mass., Oct. 14, 1732; was captain of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company in 1760, and one of the Boston Sons of Liberty. In his printing-office many of the tea-party disguised themselves, and were there regaled with punch after the exploit at the wharf was performed. He began, with Mr. Gill, in 1755, the publication of the Boston *Gazette and Country Journal,* which became a very popular newspaper, and did eminent service in the cause of popular liberty. Adams, Hancock, Otis, Quincy, Warren, and other leading spirits were constant contributors to its columns, while Mr. Edes himself wielded a caustic pen. He was in Watertown during the siege of Boston, from which place he issued the *Gazette,* the "mouth-piece of the Whigs." It was discontinued in 1798, after a life, sustained by Edes, of forty years. He died in Boston, Dec. 11, 1803.

Edes, HENRY HERBERT, historian; born in Charlestown, Mass., March 29, 1849; is a member of many historical societies, and the author of *History of the Harvard Church in Charlestown; Historical Sketch of Charlestown;* editor of *Wyman's Genealogies and Estates of Charlestown; Foote's Annals of King's Chapel, Boston,* etc.; and a contributor to the *Memorial History of Boston.*

Edes, PETER, patriot; born in Boston, Mass., Dec. 17, 1756; educated at the Boston Latin School. Shortly after the battle of Bunker Hill he was imprisoned by General Gage, who charged him with having fire-arms concealed in his house. He spent 107 days in a room of the Boston jail. He was the publisher of an edition of the *Fifth of March Orations;* also an oration on Washington. In 1837 the diary of his imprisonment, containing a list of the prisoners captured at Bunker Hill, was published in Bangor, and a letter about the "Boston tea-party," addressed to his grandson, appears in the *Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society.* He died in Bangor, Me., March 30, 1840.

Edes, RICHARD SULLIVAN, clergyman; born in Providence, R. I., April 24, 1810; spent several years in Unitarian pastorates; then applied himself to educational and literary work; published *Memoir of Peter Edes* and *Journal and Letters Relative to Two Journeys to the Ohio Country in 1788 and 1789 by Col. John May;* co-compiler of *A Genealogy of the Descendants of John May.* He died in Boston, Mass., Aug. 26, 1877.

Edes, WILLIAM, LORD AUCKLAND, diplomatist; brother of Sir Robert Edes; born in 1744; became Secretary of State for Ireland, ambassador to France, Spain, and Holland, and one of the three commissioners sent by Lord North in 1788 to treat with the Americans. He died May 28, 1814.

Edgar, HENRY CORNELIUS, clergyman; born in Rahway, N. J., April 11, 1811; graduated at Princeton College in 1831; became a merchant; was licensed to preach by the Presbyterian Church in 1845. During the Civil War he spoke forcibly against slavery. His published orations and sermons include *Three Lectures on Slavery; Four Discources Occasioned by the Death of Lincoln; An Ex-*

position of the Last Nine Wars; Christianity our Nation's Wisest Policy; A Discourse Occasioned by the Death of President Garfield, etc. He died in Easton, Pa., Dec. 23, 1884.

Edgren, AUGUST HJALMAR, author: born in Wermland, Sweden, Oct. 18, 1840; graduated at the University of Upsola; came to the United States, and joined the National army in January, 1862; was promoted first lieutenant and assigned to the Engineer Corps in August, 1863. Soon after he returned to Sweden. His publications include *The Literature of America; The Public Schools and Colleges of the United States; American Antiquities,* etc.

Edict of Nantes, THE, an edict promulgated by Henry IV. of France, which gave toleration to the Protestants in feuds, civil and religious, and ended the religious wars of the country. It was published April 13, 1598, and was confirmed by Louis XIII. in 1610, after the murder of his father; also by Louis XIV. in 1652; but it was revoked by him, Oct. 22, 1685. It was a great state blunder, for it deprived France of 500,000 of her best citizens, who fled into Germany, England, and America, and gave those countries the riches that flow from industry, skill, and sobriety. They took with them to England the art of silk-weaving, and so gave France an important rival in that branch of industry.

Edison, THOMAS ALVA, electrician; born in Milan, O., Feb. 11, 1847. He was taught by his mother till he was twelve years old, when he began work as a newspaper boy, obtaining an exclusive contract for the sale of newspapers on the Detroit division of the Grand Trunk Railway. He continued at this work for five years. Meanwhile he bought a small printing outfit, which he carried on the train, and by which he printed a small weekly paper, called *The Grand Trunk Herald.* Its subscription list showed 450 names. When the Civil War broke out the enormous increase in newspaper traffic confined his whole attention to that branch of his business. He conceived and carried out the idea of having large bulletin-boards set up at every station along the line of the railroad, on which he caused to be chalked by telegraph operators and station agents the news headings of his papers. The relations which he thus formed with telegraph operators awakened a desire to learn telegraphy. Not content with the opportunities offered by the railway telegraph, he, with a neighbor who had similar inclinations, built a line a mile long through a wood which separated their homes. Edison made the instruments, but having no way of getting a battery felt at a loss as to how he should proceed. He soon thought of a novel expedient, but its application proved a total failure. Having noticed that electric sparks were generated by rubbing a cat's back, he fastened a wire to a cat's leg, and rubbing its fur briskly, watched for an effect upon the instrument, but none followed. While engaged in commercial telegraphy in Cincinnati in 1867, he conceived the idea of transmitting two messages over one wire at the same time, totally ignorant that this had been attempted by electricians many years before. He continued to make experiments in every branch of telegraphy, attending to his office duties at night and experimenting in the daytime. In 1869 he retired from the operator's table, and, leaving Boston, where he was then employed, went to New York with original apparatus for duplex and printing telegraphy, the latter being the basis of nearly all the subsequent Gold and Stock Exchange telegraph reporting instruments. In New York he soon formed an alliance

THOMAS ALVA EDISON.

with electricians and manufacturers, and, after a few years of varied experience with partners in the laboratory and in the shop, he removed to Menlo Park, N. J., in 1876, where he established himself on an independent footing, with everything which could contribute to or facilitate invention and research. In 1886 Mr. Edison bought property in Llewellyn Park, Orange, N. J., and later removed there from Menlo Park. His inventions are many and varied. His contributions to the development of telegraphy are represented by sixty patents and caveats assigned to the Gold and Stock Telegraph Company of New York, and fifty to the Automatic Telegraphy Company. His inventions include the incandescent electric light, the carbon telegraph transmitter, the microtasimeter for the detection of small changes in the temperature; the megaphone, to magnify sound; the phonograph, the patent of which he sold for $1,000,000; the aerophone; the kinetoscope; machines for quadruplex and sextuplex telegraph transmission; method of building houses of cement by means of metallic molds; a storage-battery car for electrified railroad lines, etc. In all he received patents for more than 700 inventions. On Sept. 27, 1889, he was made a Chevalier of the Legion of Honor by the French government.

Edmonds, JOHN WORTH, lawyer; born in Hudson, N. Y., March 13, 1799; graduated at Union College in 1816; admitted to the bar in 1819; elected to the New York Assembly in 1831, and the New York Senate in 1832; became a circuit judge in 1845, and was appointed to the Court of Appeals in 1852. He was the author of *Spiritualism; Letters and Tracts on Spiritualism,* besides a number of law books. He died in New York City, April 5, 1874.

Edmunds, GEORGE FRANKLIN, statesman; born in Richmond, Vt., Feb. 1, 1828; took an early and active part in Vermont politics, serving several terms in both houses of the legislature; was speaker of the House of Representatives and president *pro tem.* of the Senate. In 1866 he entered the United States Senate as a Republican, and till 1891 was one of the foremost men in Congress. Towards the close of his senatorial career he was the author of the acts of 1882 and 1887 for the suppression of polygamy and the regulation of affairs in Utah, and of the anti-trust law (1890). In 1886 he framed the

GEORGE FRANKLIN EDMUNDS.

act for counting the electoral vote. He resigned his seat in 1891 at the conclusion of twenty-five years of uninterrupted service. In 1897 he was chosen chairman of the monetary commission appointed by the Indianapolis monetary conference, which reported to Congress a scheme of currency reform. See SHERMAN ANTI-TRUST LAW.

Education. The first schools in the United States were the old district schools —small schools that served small districts. This system continues and forms the basis of most school systems. Next came township schools, which, being larger than the districts, could equalize the schools and grade them. The third step was to the county or city school system, which was larger than the township. In the South, where the township never took root, the second step was to the county or city. The next step is full State control. In all the States the moving force was the necessity of State aid to local schools — free schools maintained by taxation. As some districts were not rich enough, and others not willing to tax themselves, the State came in by imposing school taxes on the whole people and distributing the proceeds among the various sections. This tax discriminates in favor of the country as against the city,

and of the poor as against the well-to-do. The last step is the organization by the State of secondary schools and universities. In his annual report to Congress for the school year 1909–10, Dr. Elmer E. Brown, United States Commissioner of Education, defined the general scheme of public education in the United States as follows:

It is generally understood that we have in this country no national system of school administration. The primary responsibility for educational control rests with the several States. But the nation cannot be indifferent to that which forms the character of its citizens, upon which every national hope and aspiration depends. While we have no national system of schools, we have a national programme of education. This programme, in the nature of the case, must grow with our national growth; and every enlargement of our national power, resources, aims, and influence calls for a re-examination of our educational establishment to see whether it is keeping pace with the new requirements.

Our educational organization, answering as it does to our federal plan of government, presents peculiar advantages as regards the making of a varied, flexible, yet inherently unified system of instruction. It is an organization not readily understood by foreigners. It offers many obstacles to the carrying-out of any plans for rapid and uniform improvement. Yet the self-governing character of its several members is of itself an incalculable advantage. Whatever unity is attained must be an inner unity, an agreement through conviction. There are a thousand forces working for unity and capable of giving us all of the unity that we need. To bring those forces to their finest influence, to do generously and effectively the things which under our form of organization may rightly be done, and by so doing to maintain through all the changes of history that national character which is to make us a unit of concentrated and uplifting influence among the nations—this is, in part, the work of American education.

Stated in the briefest terms, the essential elements of our educational organization are the following: First, the school and university systems of the several States; secondly, the same State systems as united in free co-operation in matters of common educational interest; thirdly, the provision made by the federal government for the encouragement and furtherance of education under these State systems.

Such provision by the federal government has taken three forms: The granting of public lands for education in the several States, beginning shortly before the adoption of the federal Constitution and culminating in the grants for agricultural and mechanical colleges in 1862; the establishment, in 1867, of the Federal Education Office, which aids the States by its information service and furthers their co-operation; and, finally, the distribution of federal funds, under the oversight of the Bureau of Education, in aid of agricultural and mechanical colleges in all of the States, under the acts of 1890 and 1907.

Other facts necessary to the most general understanding of our national organization of education are the following: That our public systems, which form the backbone of the educational provision in all of the States, are freely supplemented by institutions privately supported and privately managed; that we have been working out a peculiarly close integration of the several grades of education—elementary, secondary, and higher; and that historically our education is in the main liberal and general in its character, instruction of a technical and professional sort being an offshoot from this central trunk.

If we add that in our educational activity we have shown ourselves hospitable in a marked degree to experiments, to incidental developments, and to all manner of popular extensions of the field of education, we have a fairly comprehensive statement of what American education has been and is endeavoring to be.

It should be borne in mind that the following statistics relate exclusively to what are officially as well as popularly called the common schools. The various branches of higher education, from high schools to colleges, universities, and technical, professional, and special schools, are considered under readily suggested titles throughout this work. See Colleges for Women; Colleges in the United States.

COMMON-SCHOOL STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1869–1909.

	1869–70.	1879–80.	1889–90.	1899–1900.	1908–09.
I.—*General Statistics.*					
Total population	*a* 38,558,371	*a* 50,155,783	*a* 62,622,250	*a* 75,602,515	*b* 90,161,309
Persons 5 to 18 years of age	*a* 12,055,443	*a* 15,065,767	*a* 18,543,201	*a* 21,404,322	*b* 24,239,820
Pupils enrolled (duplicates excluded)	6,871,522	9,867,550	12,722,581	15,503,110	17,506,175
Per cent of total population enrolled	17.82	19.67	20.32	20.51	19.4
Per cent of persons 5 to 18 years of age enrolled	57.00	65.50	68.61	72.43	72.22
Average daily attendance	4,077,347	6,144,143	8,153,635	10,632,772	12,684,837
Relation of same to enrollment (per cent)	59.3	62.3	64.1	68.6	72.5
Average length of school term (days)	132.2	130.3	134.7	144.3	155.3
Total number of days attended by all pupils	539,053,423	800,719,970	1,098,232,725	1,534,822,633	1,970,117,978
Average number of days attended by each person 5 to 18	44.7	53.1	59.2	71.8	81.3
Average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled	78.4	81.1	86.3	99.0	112.6
Male teachers	77,529	122,795	125,525	126,588	108,300
Female teachers	122,986	163,798	238,397	296,474	398,153
Whole number of teachers	200,515	286,593	363,922	423,062	506,040
Per cent of male teachers	38.7	42.8	34.5	29.9	21.4
Average monthly wages of male teachers *b*	.....	.....	.....	$46.53	$63.39
Average monthly wages of female teachers *b*	.....	.....	.....	$38.93	$50.08
Number of schoolhouses *c*	116,312	178,122	224,526	248,279	257,851
Value of all school property	$130,383,008	$209,571,718	$342,531,791	$550,069,217	$967,775,587
II.—*Financial Statistics.*					
Receipts:					
From income of permanent funds and rents	.....	.....	$7,744,765	$9,152,274	$13,746,826
From State taxes	.....	.....	26,345,323	37,886,740	63,247,354
From local taxes	.....	.....	97,222,426	149,486,845	288,642,500
From all other sources	.....	.....	11,882,292	23,240,130	38,010,609
Total received	.....	.....	$143,194,806	$219,765,989	$403,647,289
Per cent of total derived from					
Income of permanent funds and rents	.....	.....	5.4	4.2	3.3
State taxes	.....	.....	18.4	17.2	15.7
Local taxes	.....	.....	67.9	68.0	71.5
All other sources	.....	.....	8.3	10.6	9.5
Expenditures:					
For sites, buildings, furniture, libraries, and apparatus	.....	.....	$26,207,041	$35,450,820	$81,878,591
For salaries of superintendents and teachers	$37,832,566	$55,942,972	91,836,484	137,687,746	237,013,913
For all other purposes	.....	.....	22,463,190	41,826,052	82,505,243
Total expended	$63,396,666	$78,094,687	$140,506,715	$214,964,618	$401,397,747
Expenditure per capita of population	$1.64	$1.56	$2.24	$2.84	$4.45
Expenditure per pupil (in average attendance)					
For sites, buildings, etc	.....	.....	$3.21	$3.33	$6.45
For salaries	$9.28	$9.10	11.26	12.95	18.69
For all other purposes	.....	.....	2.76	3.93	6.51
Total expenditure per pupil	$15.55	$12.71	$17.23	$20.21	$31.65
Per cent of expenditure devoted to:					
Sites, buildings, etc.	.....	.....	18.6	16.5	20.4
Salaries	59.7	71.6	65.4	64.0	59.2
All other purposes	.....	.....	16.0	19.5	20.4
Average expenditure per day for each pupil (cents):					
For salaries	7.0	7.0	8.4	9.0	12.1
For all purposes	11.8	9.7	12.8	14.0	20.4

a United States census. *b* Estimated. *c* Including buildings rented.

Education, AMERICAN PUBLIC. See HOLLAND, JOSIAH GILBERT.

Education, CHAUTAUQUA SYSTEM OF. See CHAUTAUQUA SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

Education, SECONDARY. Special articles will be found under the following titles: COLLEGES FOR WOMEN; COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES, etc.

Education, ELEMENTARY. WILLIAM TORREY HARRIS (*q. v.*), the U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1889–1906, one of the highest authorities on the subject of education, writes as follows:

At the meeting in 1892 the National Educational Association appointed a committee of ten persons to consider and report upon the subjects of study and the methods of instruction in secondary schools, including public high schools, private academies, and schools preparing students for college. President Eliot, of Harvard, was appointed chairman, with nine associates, four of whom were presidents of colleges, one a professor in a college, two principals of public high schools, and one head master of a preparatory school. This committee of ten, as it is generally called, had authority to select the members of special conferences and to arrange meetings for the discussion of the principal subjects taught in preparatory schools. The subjects represented were Latin, Greek, English, other modern languages, mathematics, natural philosophy (including physics, astronomy, and chemistry), natural history (and biology, including botany, zoology, and physiology), history (including also civil government and political economy), geography (including physical geography, geology, and meteorology). The National Educational Association appropriated the sum of $2,500 towards defraying the expenses of the conferences.

The report was completed and published in the spring of 1894. Thirty thousand copies were distributed by the national bureau of education, and since then edition after edition has been printed and sold by the National Educational Association through an agent.

No educational document before published in this country has been more widely read or has excited more helpful discussion. The secondary instruction of the country has been considered to be the weakest part of the entire system, although it is conceded on all hands that the teachers in secondary schools are, on the average, much superior in professional and general culture to the teachers in elementary schools, if not to those in colleges. The reason for this defect in secondary schools has been found in the course of study. A majority of the public high schools and a larger majority of the private academies dilute their secondary course of study by continuing elementary studies beyond their proper limit. Arithmetic, descriptive geography, grammar, history of one's native country, literature written in the colloquial vocabulary, are each and all very nourishing to the mind when first begun, but their educative value is soon exhausted. The mind needs for its continuous development more advanced branches, such as algebra and geometry, physical geography, a foreign language, general history. But for these the secondary school often substitutes other branches that involve no new methods nor more complex ideas, and the pupil stops in the elementary stage of growth.

The influence of the report of the committee of ten has been to impel secondary schools towards the choice of well-balanced courses of study containing subjects which belong essentially to secondary education, like algebra, Latin, or physics; and at the same time either to discontinue elementary branches, or to apply to the study of these a superior method, by which their principles are traced into higher branches and explained.

The success of the report of the committee of ten has been such as to arouse eager interest in a similar inquiry into the work of the elementary schools. Already, in February, 1893, a committee had been appointed by the department of superintendence in the National Educational Association. It was made to consist of fifteen members instead of ten, and has been known as the committee of fifteen.

The report of this committee of fifteen was submitted to the department of superintendents at the meeting in 1895. It is the object of this paper to indicate briefly the points that give it importance.

If one were to summarize concisely the history of educational progress in the United States for the nineteenth century as regards the elementary schools, he would say that there has been a change from the ungraded school in the sparsely settled district to the graded school of the city and large village. The ungraded school held a short session of three or four months, was taught by a makeshift teacher, had mostly individual instruction, with thirty or forty recitations to be heard and five minutes or less of the teacher's time per day for each.

The graded school has classified its pupils according to the degree of advancement and assigns two classes to a teacher. Instead of five minutes for a recitation, there are twenty or thirty minutes, and the teacher has an opportunity to go behind the words of the book and by discussion and questioning probe the lesson, find what the pupil really understands and can explain in his own words. Each member of the class learns more from the answers of his fellow-pupils and from the cross-questioning of the teacher than he could learn from a lesson of equal length with a tutor entirely devoted to himself.

The graded school continues for ten months instead of three, and employs or may employ a professional educated teacher. This is the most important item of progress to be mentioned in the history of our education. Normal schools, 200 in number, have been created in the various States, and it is estimated that the cities, large and small, have an average of 50 per cent. of professionally trained teachers, while the ungraded schools in the rural districts are taught by persons who leave their regular vocations and resort to teaching for a small portion of the year.

The urban and suburban population, counting in the large villages, is at present about 50 per cent. of the population of the whole country.

One improvement leads to another, and where the graded school has been established with its professionally trained teachers it has been followed by the appointment of experts as superintendents, until over 800 cities and towns in the nation have such supervision. The fifty States have each a State superintendent, who, in most cases, controls the licensing of teachers in rural districts.

With the advent of the professional teacher and the expert supervisor, there has arrived an era of experiment and agitation for reforms.

The general trend of school reforms may be characterized as in the direction of securing the interest of the pupil. All the new devices have in view the awakening of the pupil's inner spring of action. He is to be interested and made to act along lines of rational culture through his own impulse. The older methods looked less to interesting the pupil than to disciplining the will in rational forms. "Make the pupil familiar with self-sacrifice, make it a second nature to follow the behest of duty and heroically stifle selfish desires"—this was their motto, expressed or implied. It was an education addressed primarily to the will. The new education is addressed to the feelings and desires. Its motto is: "Develop the pupil through his desires and interests." Goethe preached this doctrine in his *Wilhelm Meister.* Froebel founded the kindergarten system on it. Colonel Parker's Quincy school experiment was, and his Cook County Normal School is, a centre for the promulgation of this idea. Those who advocate an extension of the system of elective studies in the colleges and its introduction even into secondary and elementary schools justify it by the principle of interest.

It is noteworthy that this word "interest" is the watchword of the disciples of the Herbartian system of pedagogy. Herbart, in his psychology, substituted desire for will. He recognizes intellect and feeling and desire (*Begierde*). Desire is, of course, a species of feeling—for feeling includes sensations and desires, the former allied to the intellect and the latter to the will. But sensation is not yet intellect, nor is desire will; both are only feeling.

I have described and illustrated this general trend of school reform in order to show its strength and its weakness, and to indicate the province marked out for a report that should treat of the branches of study and the methods of instruction in the elementary school and suggest improvement.

While the old education in its exclusive devotion to will-training has slighted the intellect and the heart (or feelings), the new education moves likewise towards an extreme as bad, or worse. It slights direct will-culture and tends to exaggerate impulse and inclination or interest. An educational psychology that degrades will to desire must perforce construct an elaborate system for the purpose of developing moral interests and desires. This, however, does not quite succeed until the old doctrine of self-sacrifice for the sake of the good is reached.

"Our wills are ours, to make them thine."

The philosophy of the *Bhagavad Gita* holds that the goal of culture is to annihilate all interest and attain absolute indifference—this is adopted by Buddhism in the doctrine of Nirvana. Indian renunciation reaches the denial of selfhood, while the Christian doctrine of renunciation reaches only to the denial of selfishness and the adoption of altruistic interests.

However this may be, the pedagogic impulse to create devices for awakening the interest of the pupil becomes sometimes a craze for novelty. Change at any price and change of any kind is clamored for. It is a trite saying that change is not progress. It is more apt to be movement in a circle or even retrogression. An amusing example was lately furnished in educational circles. A superintendent of rural schools defended their want of classification as an advantage. It was "individual instruction," and, as such, an improvement over that of the graded school of the cities. His reactionary movement received the support of some of the advocates of educational reform on the ground that it was a new departure. This happened at a time when one-half of the school children in the United States are still taught, or rather allowed to memorize their text-books, by this method.

The sub-committees on training of teachers and on organization of city school systems have brought forward, in their respective reports, the latest devised measures for the perfection of normal schools and the procurement of expert supervisors for city school systems. The importance of the recommendations regarding schools for the training of teachers is seen when one recalls to mind the fact that the entire upward movement of the elementary schools has been initiated and sustained by the employment of professionally trained teachers, and that the increase of urban population has made it possible. In the normal school the candidate is taught the history of education, the approved methods of instruction, and the grounds of each branch of study as they are to be found in the sciences that it presupposes.

The method of eliminating politics from the control of a city school system is discussed in Judge Draper's frank and persuasive style, and a plan in essential particulars similar to that adopted in the city of Cleveland is recommended for trial in all large cities. A small school-board of five or ten members is appointed by the mayor, which, in turn, elects a school-director (but this officer may also be appointed by the mayor), who takes charge of the business side of the management of schools. For the professional side of the work a superintendent is appointed by the school-director, with the approval of two-thirds or three-fourths of the school-board. The terms of office suggested are, respectively, for the members of the school-board appointed by the mayor, five years; for the school-director, five years; for the superintendent, five to ten years. The superintendent appoints all teachers from an eligible list of candidates whose qualifications are defined by the school-board.

This plan of government is based on the idea of the importance of personal responsibility at all points in the administration. Only an actual trial can determine its strength or weakness. All plans, as Judge Draper well says, presuppose a public spirit and a moral sense on the part of the people; they presuppose a sincere desire for good schools and a fair knowledge of what good schools are and of the best means of creating them. Where the whole people possesses political power, the intelligent and virtuous citizens must exert a continual influence or else the demagogues will come into office. For the natural representative of the weakling classes is the demagogue. Whether the citizen is weak in intellect, or thrift, or

morals, it is all the same; he will vote for the demagogue as ruler.

The report on the correlation of studies is an attempt to reconcile the old and the new in education by discovering what in the course of study is or should be permanent and what in the nature of things is transient. It admits the claims of the new education, as to making the appeal to the child's interest paramount, so far as this relates to the methods of instruction, but it finds a limit to this in the matters to be taught. It discusses the educational value of the five principal factors of the course of study in order to determine clearly where the proposed new branches of study belong and what they add to the old curriculum. These five components of a course of study are: (1) Grammar, as a study of the structure of language; (2) Literature, as a study of the art form of language—literature as furnishing a revelation of human nature in all its types; (3) Mathematics, as furnishing the laws of matter in movement and rest—the laws grounded in the nature of space and time; (4) Geography, as a compend of natural and social science—unfolding later, in secondary and higher education, into geology, botany, zoology, meteorology on the one hand, and into anthropology and sociology, economics and politics on the other; (5) History, as showing the origin and growth of institutions, especially of the state. It appears that these five branches cover the two worlds of man and nature, and that all theoretical studies fall within these lines. This is the correlation of study. Each essential branch has some educational value that another does not possess. Each branch also serves the function of correlating the child to his environment—namely, to the two worlds of nature and human society.

Hitherto, we are told in this report, the course of study has been justified on psychological grounds—"literature cultivates the memory and the imagination"; "arithmetic the reason," etc. But each branch has in some measure a claim on all the faculties. Arithmetic cultivates the memory of quantity, the imagination of successions, and the reason in a peculiar figure of the syllogism different from the three figures used in qualitative reasoning.

The report, however, makes frequent appeal to experimental psychology in dealing with the question of the time devoted to the several branches. For example, it often discusses the danger of too much thoroughness of drill in teaching and the use of processes that become mechanical after some time. The rapid addition of numbers, the study of the geometrical solids, the identification of the colors of the spectrum, the reading of insipid pieces written in the colloquial vocabulary, the memorizing of localities and dates; all these things may be continued so long under the plea of "thoroughness" as to paralyze the mind, or fix it in some stage of arrested growth.

The committee have been at much pains to point out the importance of leaving a branch of study when it has been studied long enough to exhaust its educational value. It is shown in the case of arithmetic that it ought to be replaced by algebra two years earlier than is the custom in the public schools at present. The arithmetical method should not be used to solve the class of problems that are more easily solved by algebra. So, too, it is contended that English grammar should be discontinued at the close of the seventh year, and French, German, or Latin—preferably the last—substituted for it. The educative value of a study on its psychological side is greatest at the beginning. The first six months in the study of algebra or Latin—it is claimed that even the first four weeks—are more valuable than the same length of time later on. For the first lessons make one acquainted with a new method of viewing things.

In recommending the introduction of Latin and algebra into the seventh and eighth years of the elementary school course, the committee are in accord with the committee of ten, who urged the earlier commencement of the secondary course of study.

The committee urge strongly the subordination of elocution and grammar in the reading exercises to the study of the contents of the literary work of art, holding that the best lesson learned at school is the mastery of a poetic gem or a selection from a great prose writer. It is contended that the selections found in the school readers often possess more literary unity than the whole works from which they

were taken, as in the case of Byron's *Battle of Waterloo* from *Childe Harold*. The importance of studying the unity of a work of art is dwelt upon in different parts of the report.

Likewise in the study of general history the committee suggest that the old method of beginning with the earliest ages be discontinued and that a regressive method be adopted, proceeding from United States history back to English history, and thence to Rome, Greece, and Judæa, and the other sources of our civilization.

In contrast to this genuine correlation the report describes an example of what it calls "artificial correlation"—where *Robinson Crusoe* or some literary work of art is made the centre of study for a considerable period of time, and geography, arithmetic, and other branches taught incidentally in connection with it.

Educational Land Grants. Up to 1912. the national government had granted to the several States and Territories for educational endowment or the erection of schools and colleges upward of 12,000,000 acres of public lands. The immediate beneficiaries, either State and Territorial universities, which established agricultural and mechanical departments with the proceeds of the sale of these lands, or special institutions otherwise established by the States and Territories for the same kind of instruction, numbered over 52 for white students and 16 for colored. Together these institutions had about 75,000 students, property valued at over $115,000,000, income of nearly $20,000,000, and about 2,500,000 bound volumes and 600,000 technical pamphlets in their libraries.

Edward, Fort, on the Hudson River, forty-five miles north of Albany; built by the 6,000 New England troops in the French and Indian War in 1755; originally called Fort Lyman after their commander. A garrison of 2,500 men under the Earl of London, and later under General Webb, made several expeditions against Canada. After Munro's defeat at Fort William Henry (*q. v.*) the remnant of the American army fled to Fort Edward. During Burgoyne's advance in July, 1777, General Schuyler sought shelter here. See Hubbardton, Battle of; McCrea, Jane.

Edward VII., Albert Edward, King of Great Britain and Emperor of India; born in Buckingham Palace, Nov. 9, 1841; eldest son of Queen Victoria and the Prince Consort; created Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester a month after his birth; educated by private tutors, at Christ Church, Oxford, and at Cambridge. In 1860, under the guidance of the Duke of Newcastle, he visited the United States, where he received an enthusiastic welcome. President Buchanan and his official family extended to him a grand entertainment at the national capital, and the cities which he visited vied with one another in paying him high honors. The courtesies so generously extended to him laid the foundation for the strong friendship which he always afterwards manifested for Americans. After this trip he travelled in Germany, Italy, and the Holy Land. In 1863 he married the Princess Alexandra, daughter of Christian IX., King of Denmark, and after his marriage he made prolonged tours in many foreign countries, most notably in Egypt and Greece in 1869, and in British India in 1875–76. He was always exceedingly fond of out-door sports and athletics in general, and kept himself in close touch with his people. He succeeded to the throne, under the title of Edward VII., on the death of Queen Victoria, Jan. 22, 1901; died in London, May 6, 1910; and was succeeded by the Prince of Wales, under the title of George V. (*q. v.*).

Edward Albert, Prince of Wales; son of King George V. and Queen Victoria Mary; born June 28, 1894; early entered the royal navy as a cadet; created Prince of Wales, June 22, 1910.

Edwards, Clarence Ransom, military officer; born in Cleveland, O., Jan. 1, 1860; graduated at West Point in 1883; professor of military science and tactics, St. John's College, Fordham, N. Y., 1890; on staff of Gen. Henry W. Lawton, in the Philippines, 1899; chief of the division of insular affairs, War Department, 1900–02; became colonel and chief of the Bureau of Insular Affairs, July 1, 1902; brigadier-general, U. S. A., June 30, 1906.

Edwards, Jonathan, theologian; born in East Windsor, Conn., Oct. 5, 1703; graduated at Yale College in 1720, having begun to study Latin when he was six years of age. He is said to have reasoned out for himself his doctrine of free-will

before he left college, at the age of seventeen. He became assistant to his grandfather, Rev. Mr. Stoddard, minister at Northampton, Mass., whom he succeeded as pastor. He was dismissed in 1750, because he insisted upon a purer and higher standard of admission to the communion-table. Then he began his missionary work (1751) among the Stockbridge Indians, and prepared his greatest work, on *The Freedom of the Will,* which was published in 1754. He was inaugurated president of the College of New Jersey, in Princeton, Feb. 16, 1758. He married Sarah Pierrepont, of New Haven, in 1727, and they became the grandparents of Aaron Burr. He died March 22, 1758.

JONATHAN EDWARDS.

Edwards, NINIAN, jurist; born in Montgomery county, Md., in March, 1775. William Wirt directed his early education, which was finished at Dickinson College, and in 1819 he settled in the Green River district of Kentucky. Before he was twenty-one he became a member of the Kentucky legislature; was admitted to the bar in Kentucky in 1798, and to that of Tennessee the next year. He passed through the offices of circuit judge and judge of appeals to the bench of chief-justice of Kentucky in 1808. The next year he was appointed the first governor of the Territory of Illinois, and retained that office until its organization as a State in 1818. From 1818 till 1824 he was United States Senator, and from 1826 to 1830 governor of the State. He did much, by promptness and activity, to restrain Indian hostilities in the Illinois region during the War of 1812. He died in Belleville, Ill., July 20, 1833. See A. B. PLOT.

Edwards, OLIVER, military officer; born in Springfield, Mass., Jan. 30, 1835; was commissioned first lieutenant in the 10th Massachusetts Volunteers at the outbreak of the Civil War, and was promoted brigadier-general, May 19, 1865, for "conspicuous gallantry." He received the surrender of Petersburg, Va., and commanded Forts Hamilton and Lafayette, in New York Harbor, during the draft riots of 1863. His services were most conspicuous during the second day of the battle of the Wilderness; at Spottsylvania (1864), where he held the "bloody angle" for 11 hours with his own brigade, and, at the head of 20 regiments, faced the Confederates for 13 hours thereafter; and at Sailor's Creek, where he captured Generals Custis Lee and Ewell. He was mustered out of the army in 1866. He died in Warsaw, Ill., April 18, 1904.

Edwards, PIERREPONT, jurist; born in Northampton, Mass., April 8, 1750; the youngest son of Jonathan Edwards, Sr.; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1768. His youth was spent among the Stockbridge Indians, where his father was missionary, and he acquired the language perfectly. He became an eminent lawyer; espoused the cause of the patriots, and fought for liberty in the army of the Revolution. He was a member of the Congress of the Confederation in 1787–88. Mr. Edwards was the founder of the "Toleration party" in Connecticut, which made him unpopular with the Calvinists. He died in Bridgeport, Conn., April 5, 1826.

Edward's Ferry, BATTLE AT. See BALL'S BLUFF.

Efficiency Management. See SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT.

Egbert, HARRY C., military officer; born in Pennsylvania, Jan. 3, 1839; joined the 12th United States Infantry, Sept. 23, 1861; served with distinction in the actions of Gaines's Mills, Malvern Hill, Cedar Mountain, Gettysburg, etc. He was lieutenant-colonel during the Spanish War and was shot through the body at El Caney, July 1, 1898. Promoted colonel, he arrived at Manila March 4, 1899, and while leading a charge against Malinta

he received a wound, from which he died March 26 following.

Eggleston, EDWARD, author; born in Vevay, Ind., Dec. 10, 1837. His publications of a historical character include *History of the United States; A First Book of American History; The Beginners of a Nation,* etc. He died at Lake George, N. Y., Sept. 3, 1902.

Eggleston, GEORGE CARY, author; born in Vevay, Ind., Nov. 26, 1839; served in the Confederate army. His publications include *Red Eagle and the War with the Creek Indians; Strange Stories from History; Our First Century; Southern Soldier Stories; American Immortals,* etc. He died in New York City, April 14, 1911.

Eggleston, JOSEPH, military officer; born in Amelia county, Va., Nov. 24, 1754; was graduated at William and Mary College in 1776; joined the cavalry of the American army; became captain, and acquired the reputation of being an officer of great efficiency. In 1781 he displayed remarkable bravery in the action of Guilford Court-house and in the siege of Augusta; later in the same year he won the first success in the battle of Eutaw by a well-directed blow against the vanguard of the British column. He held a seat in Congress in 1798–1801. He died in Amelia county, Va., Feb. 13, 1811.

Egle, WILLIAM HENRY, librarian; born in Harrisburg, Pa., Sept. 17, 1830; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1859; State librarian of Pennsylvania from 1887; author of *History of Pennsylvania; Pennsylvania in the Revolution; Pennsylvania Genealogies; Historical, Biographical, and Genealogical Notes and Queries; Some Pennsylvania Women in the Revolution,* etc. He died in Harrisburg, Pa., Feb. 19, 1901.

Eight-hour Law, an act adopted in 1868 by the United States Congress, providing that in all government employment eight hours shall constitute a day's work. See LABOR. INDUSTRIAL.

Elbert, SAMUEL, military officer; born in Prince William parish, S. C., in 1743; was made captain of a grenadier company in 1774; joined the Revolutionary army in 1776. He led an expedition into East Florida in April, 1778, and took Fort Oglethorpe; afterwards displayed great bravery in the assault on Savannah in December, 1778. He was captured by the British in the engagement at Brier Creek, March 3, 1779; afterwards was exchanged and re-entered the American army; was brevetted brigadier-general, Nov. 3, 1783; became governor of Georgia in 1785. He died in Savannah, Ga., Nov. 2, 1788.

El Caney, an elevated suburban village 3 miles northeast of Santiago, in the province of Santiago, Cuba. It was here, on July 1, 1898, that the American army of liberation met its first serious opposition. After the landing of the troops at DAIQUIRI *(q. v.)* on June 20–22, a forward movement began, and by the 27th the whole army, 16,000 strong, had reached points within 3 miles of Santiago. General Shafter, in consultation with the other generals, determined on an enveloping movement to prevent a junction of the forces under General Pando and those under General Linares in Santiago. In accordance with this plan the division of General Lawton moved out on June 30, into positions previously determined. By daylight, on July 1, Capt. Allyn K. Capron's light battery reached a commanding hill, 2,400 yards from the village. The brigade of Maj.-Gen. Adna R. Chaffee was assigned a position east of El Caney that he might be prepared to attack after the first bombardment, and Brig.-Gen. William Ludlow went around to the west with his brigade for the purpose of preventing a retreat of the Spaniards into Santiago. As soon as the battery opened fire upon the stone block-house and church in the centre of the village, and also the trenches where the Spanish infantry was situated, General Chaffee's brigade moved to attack in the front, keeping up a constant but careful fire, as the men had only 100 rounds of ammunition each. In the rear, General Ludlow moved his troops forward, and from the south came the reserves of Brig.-Gen. Evan Miles. So stubborn, however, was the defence that reinforcements under Maj.-Gen. John C. Bates were ordered up to strengthen the line. After the enemy had left their intrenchments, the fire was concentrated upon the brick fort, from which the Spaniards poured a galling musketry fire into the American lines. The fort could not long withstand the attack. At this juncture the commands under Chaffee, Bates, and Miles made a

charge, and captured the work. The brave defence of El Caney was directed by Brig.-Gen. Vera del Rey (who died fighting), with 520 men, of whom scarcely a fifth remained alive at the end of the action. In 1901 the United States government purchased the battle-field and its approaches for a national reservation. See SAN JUAN HILL.

Eldorado, the fabled country in America containing numerous kingdoms, the cities of which were filled with gold.

Eldridge, HAMILTON N., military officer; born in South Williamstown, Mass., Aug. 23, 1831; graduated at Williams College in 1856; and engaged in law practice in 1857. He recruited the 127th Illinois Regiment in July, 1862; was promoted colonel; and was brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers in recognition of his bravery at Vicksburg. He died in Chicago, Ill., Nov. 27, 1882.

Eldridge, SHALER W., abolitionist; born in West Springfield, Mass., in 1817; removed to Kansas in 1855, and became proprietor of the American House in Kansas City, which was soon recognized as the headquarters of Free-soilers. It was here that Governor Reeder was concealed for three weeks in 1856. During the same year Eldridge opened the Free-State Hotel in Lawrence, but soon afterwards a pro-slavery court issued a writ of indictment, declaring the place a nuisance, and it was destroyed by a posse led by Sheriff Jones. Later he became a member of the National Republican Committee and agent to promote immigration into Kansas. Under the last authority he led a large number of settlers to Kansas. During one of these trips, with a party of 350 men, he was taken prisoner by United States troops. Subsequently he recruited a party of Free-soilers, who retook the arms from the United States officers at Lecompton. He smuggled large amounts of ammunition into Kansas. During the Civil War he served in the Union army. He died in Lawrence, Kan., Jan. 17, 1899.

SPANISH EARTHWORKS AND INTRENCHMENTS AT EL CANEY.

ELECTION BILL, FEDERAL

Election Bill, FEDERAL. During the discussion on the Federal Election Bill, the HON. THOMAS BRACKETT REED, Speaker of the House of Representatives *(q. v.)*, wrote as follows:

The national election bill of 1890, as was pointed out several times during the discussion which it aroused, both in and out of Congress, is a long bill. Yet if any one will take the trouble to compare it with the general election laws of most, if not all of the States, he will find that in its class it is more conspicuous for brevity than for length. The truth is that no election law which attempts to provide accurately

for all the different stages of an election can be otherwise than long. At the same time, although it takes many paragraphs in a bill to state exactly how each act, great and small, having relation to an election shall be performed, it is perfectly easy to put into very few words the purpose of an election law and the methods by which it proposes to accomplish that purpose.

The first object of the national election law was to secure entire publicity in regard to every act connected with the election of members of Congress. To effect this it provides for the appointment of United States officers, selected from the two leading political parties, to watch over and report upon naturalization registration, the conduct of the election, the count of the ballots, and the certification of the members. These officers have no power whatever to interfere with local officers or existing methods. Their only duty is to protect the honest voter, secure evidence to punish wrong-doers, and make public every fact in connection with the election. The State systems, whether they provide for the secret and official ballot or otherwise, are all carefully protected under this law against any interference from United States officers. Moreover, if the officers of the United States at any election precinct exercise their powers improperly, the local officers are there to report their conduct. Thus is obtained a double assurance of publicity from two sets of men, among whom both the leading political parties are represented, without any interference with local officers or local systems.

At only one point does the United States take what may be called control of any essential step in the election of Representatives. Where an entire congressional district is placed under the law, a United States board of canvassers appointed for the district receives the supervisors' returns, and on those returns issues a certificate for the candidate who appears to be elected. If that certificate agrees with the certificate of the State officers, the name of the candidate who holds them both is, of course, placed upon the roll of members of the House. If the two certificates disagree, then the certificate of the United States board is *prima facie* evidence and places the name of the holder upon the roll of Representatives; but in this case any candidate may appeal from the decision of the board of canvassers to the circuit court of the United States, which has power to set aside the certificate of the canvassers and virtually decide whose name shall be placed on the roll of the House. A candidate who is not willing to have his cause tried by a court of high jurisdiction must be hard to please, when we consider that the only other known method is that of a committee of Congress made up of party representatives.

Thus it will be seen that the whole purpose of this bill may be summed up in one word—"publicity." It proceeds on the sound American theory that all that is necessary, in the long run, to secure good government and to cure evils of any kind in the body politic is that the people should be correctly informed and should know all the facts. It proposes, therefore, by making public all the facts relating to elections, to protect the voters and to render easy the punishment of fraud. If wrong exists, it will disclose and punish it. If all is fair and honest, it proves that all is well, restores public confidence, and removes suspicion. There is absolutely nothing in this bill except provisions to secure the greatest amount of publicity in regard to elections, and to protect the ballot-box by making sure the punishment of those who commit crimes against the suffrage. It interferes with no man's rights; it changes no local system; it disturbs no local officers; but it gives publicity to every step and detail of the election, and publicity is the best, as it is the greatest, safeguard that we can have in this country for good government and honest voting. No wrong can long continue when the people see and understand it, and nothing that is right and honest need fear the light. The Southern Democrats declare that the enforcement of this or any similar law will cause social disturbances and revolutionary outbreaks. As the negroes now disfranchised certainly will not revolt because they receive a vote, it is clear, therefore, that this means that the men who now rule in those States will make social

disturbances and revolution in resistance to a law of the United States. It is also not a little amusing to observe that small portion of the newspaper press which has virtue generally in its peculiar keeping, raving in mad excitement merely because it is proposed to make public everything which affects the election of the representatives of the people in Congress. There must be something very interesting in the methods by which these guardians of virtue hope to gain and hold political power when they are so agitated at the mere thought of having the darkness which now overhangs the places where they win their victories dispersed.

So much for the purpose of the bill. A word now as to some of the objections which have been raised against it. The most common is that which is summed up in the phrase "force bill." There is nothing very novel in this epithet, for it can hardly be called an argument, or the suggestion of one. It proceeds on the old doctrine of giving a dog a bad name—a saying which is valuable, but perhaps a trifle musty. There was a bill introduced many years ago to which that description was applied not without effect; and the persons opposed to the new measure, whose strongest intellectual quality is not originality, brought out the old name without much regard to its appropriateness. The trouble with this is that the old bill and the new one are totally unlike, and that what applies to one has no application to the other except that they both aim to protect American voters in their rights. There is no question of force in the new bill. One able editor referred to it as "bristling with bayonets in every line"; but as there is absolutely no allusion to anything or anybody remotely connected with bayonets, it is to be feared that the able editor in question had not read the bill. So anxious, indeed, are the opponents of the measure on this point that, not finding any bayonets in the bill, they themselves have put them in rather than not have them in at all. One newspaper took a clause from the revised statutes of the United States relating to United States troops and printed it as a part of the election bill, although the bill contains no such clause, but merely re-enacts a law which has been on the statute-books for twenty years, and which would have remained and been in force, whether re-enacted or not, so long as it was not repealed.

The President of the United States has from the beginning of the government had power to use the army and navy in support of the laws of the United States, and this general power was explicitly conferred many years ago in that portion of the revised statutes which now comes under the title "civil rights." The new election bill neither adds to nor detracts from that power, and as the liberties of the country have been safe under it for at least twenty years, it is not to be apprehended that they will now be in danger. The fact is that the talk about this being a "force bill" and having bayonets in every line is mere talk designed to frighten the unwary, for the bill is really an "anti-force" bill, intended to stop the exercise of illegal force by those who use it at the polls North or South; and it is exactly this which the opponents of the bill dread. The United States have power to enforce all the laws which they make, whether they are laws regulating elections or for other purposes. That power the United States must continue to hold and to exercise when needful, and the national election law neither affects nor extends it in any way.

The objection next in popularity is that the measure is sectional, and not national. That this should be thought a valuable and important shibboleth only shows how men come to believe that there is real meaning in a phrase if they only shout it often enough and loudly enough. Repetition and reiteration are, no doubt, pleasant political exercises, but they do not alter facts. In the first place, if we look a little below the surface, it will be found that no more damaging confession could be made than this very outcry. The law when applied can have but one of two results. It will either disclose the existence of fraud, violence, or corruption in a district, or show that the election is fair and honest. If the latter proves to be the case, no one can or would object to any law which demonstrates it. If, on the other hand, fraud is disclosed, then the necessity of this legislation is proved. The election law is designed to meet and

overcome fraud, force, or corruption, as the case may be, in elections anywhere and everywhere, and if it is sectional, it can only be so because fraudulent elections are sectional. Those who rave against the bill as sectional—that is, as directed against the South, for Southern and sectional appear to have become synonymous terms—admit by so doing that they have a monopoly of impure elections. If it were otherwise, the law, even when applied, would not touch them except to exhibit their virtues in a strong light.

In the sense, however, in which the charge of sectionalism is intended there is no truth in it. Why, it has been asked, did not the Republicans accept the amendment of Mr. Lehlbach, of New Jersey, and make the measure really national? The Lehlbach amendment, if adopted, would have made the bill universally compulsory, but would not have made it one whit more national than it now is. The clause on which the accusation of sectionalism rests is that which makes the application of the bill optional; but to make a measure optional is not to make it sectional. If everybody and every part of the country have the option, the bill is as broadly national as if every provision in it were compulsory. No one would think of calling the local-option liquor laws, which are not uncommon in the States, special and not general legislation; and it is equally absurd to call an election law containing the local-option principle sectional. A law which may be applied anywhere on the fulfilment of a simple and easily-fulfilled condition is as national and general as a law which must be applied everywhere, whether asked for or not.

Moreover, the origin of the legislation of which this is a mere continuance is the best proof of its national character. The original supervisors' law, of which this is an extension, was designed especially to meet the notorious frauds in the city of New York, and the new bill aims quite as much to cure frauds in the great cities of the North as in any part of the country. It is, indeed, the knowledge of this fact which sharpens the anguish of the Northern Democrats at what they pathetically call an invasion of State rights. It is not the peril of State rights which afflicts them, but the thought of an abridgment of those liberties with the ballot-box of which the performances in Hudson county, N. J., have afforded the most recent illustration. The South shouts loudest, but it is merely because the ruling statesmen there think they have most to lose by fair elections. What chiefly troubles the opponents of the bill North and South is, not that it is sectional, but that it will check, if not stop, cheating at the polls everywhere.

Another objection of a sordid kind brought forward against the bill is that it will cost money. If this or any other measure will tend to keep the ballot-box pure, it is of little consequence how much it costs. The people of the United States can afford to pay for any system which protects the vote and makes the verdict of the ballot-box so honest as to command universal confidence; but it is, of course, for the interest of the enemies of the law to make the expense seem as startling as possible. They talk about $10,000,000 being the least probable expenditure. Assuming, as they do, that the law will be put in operation everywhere, this sum is at least twice too large. Careful and liberal estimates put the cost, supposing the law were to be applied in every district, at less than $5,000,000; but as there is no probability that the law will be asked for in a third of the districts, the cost would not reach a third of the sum actually necessary for all districts. Admitting, however, that $5,000,000 or $6,000,000 would be expended, no better expenditure of money could be made than one which would protect the ballot, give publicity to the conduct of elections, and demonstrate to all men their fairness and honesty. The States of the North have not hesitated to take upon themselves the burden of the expense of their own elections under the secret and official ballot, and the wisdom of this policy is beyond question. It is difficult to see why the policy which is sound for the States is not sound for the United States.

It is also objected that the penal clauses are very severe. This is perfectly true. They are very severe; and if any crime is more deserving of severe punishment or more dangerous to the public weal than a crime against the ballot, it has not yet been made generally known in this coun-

try. The penal clauses of the law are intentionally severe, and the penalties are purposely made heavy. The penalties against murder, highway robbery, and burglary are also heavy and severe, but in every case it is easy to avoid them. Do not be a murderer, a burglar, or a highwayman; do not commit crimes against the ballot, and the penalties for these offences will be to you as if they never existed.

The last objection here to be touched, and the only one remaining which has been zealously pushed, is that the enforcement of this law will endanger Northern property and affect Northern business in the South. It is not easy to see why honest elections, whether State or national, should affect injuriously either property or business. If honest elections are hostile to property and business, then the American system of free government is indeed in danger; and no more infamous reflection could be made upon the people of America than to say that they cannot be trusted to express their will by their votes, but must have their votes suppressed in the interests of order and virtue. No one, however, really believes in anything of the sort. This is simply a revival of the old cry of the Northern "doughface" against the agitation of the slavery question in the days before the war. It was base and ignoble then, but at that dark period there was at least a real danger of war and bloodshed behind the issue. Now it is not only as utterly ignoble and base as before, but it is false and ludicrous besides. Property and business in the Southern States, as elsewhere, depend almost wholly for protection on State laws and municipal ordinances; and neither this nor any other national law, even if it could be conceived to be injurious to business interests, could touch either State or municipal governments. The proposition, without any disguise, really is that fair elections of Congressmen would endanger business and property in the Southern States; and the mere statement of the proposition is its complete confutation, for, even if Congress had the power or the desire to interfere in local legislation, the election of fifteen or twenty Republicans in the South would not affect the composition of the House materially, and as Congress has no such power, the cry, of course, is wholly without meaning. So keen, however, is the sympathy of the Northern Democrats with this view of the subject, that definite threats of war against the national government have been heard.

But there is, unfortunately, a much more serious side to this phase of the question. Legislation is proposed which the South does not like, and, thereupon, headed by the gallant Governor Gordon, Southern leaders and Southern newspapers begin to threaten and bluster as if we were back in the days of South Carolinian nullification. It is the old game of attempting to bully the North and West by threats. The North and West are to be boycotted for daring to protect citizens in their constitutional rights, and even more dreadful things are to follow. It has been generally believed that the war settled the proposition that this country is a nation, and that the nation's laws lawfully enacted are supreme. Yet here we have again the old slavery spirit threatening to boycott Northern business, trying to bully the Northern people, raising the old sectional cry, and murmuring menaces of defiance and resistance if a certain law which can injure no honest man is enacted. The war was not wholly in vain, and it is time that this vaporing was stopped. The laws of the United States will be obeyed; election laws, as well as every other, will be enforced; and the sensible way is to discuss the question properly and have the people pass upon it, and to throw aside these threats of boycott and nullification as unworthy the use or notice of intelligent men.

The difficulty, however, with all these objections, both for those who make them and those who reply to them, is that they are utterly unreal. They are but the beating of gongs and drums, without any greater significance than mere noise can possess. The national election bill is a moderate measure. It is not a force bill: it does not interfere in any way with local elections or local government. It does not involve extravagant expenditure, nor is it sectional in its scope. It does not seek to put the negro or any other class of citizens in control any

where, but aims merely to secure to every man who ought to vote the right to vote and to have his vote honestly counted. No one knows these facts to be true better than the opponents of the bill; but their difficulty is that they cannot bring forward their real and honest objection, and so they resort to much shrieking and many epithets. They believe, whether rightly or wrongly, that fair elections mean the loss of the national House at least nine times out of ten to the party to which they belong. They believe that fair elections mean the rise of a Republican party in every Southern State, led by and in good part composed of white men, native to the ground, whose votes are now suppressed under the pretence of maintaining race supremacy as against the negro. They believe that the law threatens the disappearance of the race issue on which they found their power and the fall of the narrow oligarchy which for so many years has ruled with iron hand in the Southern States and in the national conventions of the Democratic party.

The real objection to the bill, in other words, comes from the fact that one of the two great parties believes that free elections imperil their power. They know that by this bill the United States officers, taken from both parties, are appointed by the courts, the body furthest removed from politics. They know that these United States officers will be held in check by local officers and be utterly unable to interfere with the proper conduct of the election. But they know also that the result will be publicity, and they believe that in consequence of publicity many districts will be lost to them. This law is as fair to one party as another; but if one party is cheating that party will suffer, and where the cry against the law is loudest it is the best evidence of its necessity, and proves that those who resist it profit by the wrong-doing which it seeks to cure.

The Constitution of the United States promises equal representation to the people, and it makes the negro a citizen. Equality of representation has been destroyed by the system in the South which makes one vote there overweigh five or six votes in the North, and the negro has been deprived of the rights the nation gave. No people can afford to stand quiet and see its charter of government made a dead-letter; and no wrong can endure and not be either cured or expiated. Fair elections North and South are vital to the republic. If we fail to secure them, or if we permit any citizen, no matter how humble, to be wronged, we shall atone for it to the last jot and tittle. No great moral question of right and wrong can ever be settled finally except in one way, and the longer the day of reckoning is postponed the larger will be the debt and the heavier its payment.

Elections, Federal Control of. When the question of the federal control of elections was under discussion, the Hon. Henry Cabot Lodge, U. S. Senator from Massachusetts, wrote:

No form of government can be based on systematic injustice; least of all a republic. All governments partake of the imperfections of human nature, and fall far short not only of the ideals dreamed of by good men, but even of the intentions of ordinary men. Nevertheless, if perfection be unattainable, it is still the duty of every nation to live up to the principles of simple justice, and at least follow the lights it can clearly see.

Whatever may have been the intentions of our forefathers, the steady growth of our government has been towards a democracy of manhood. One by one the barriers which kept from the suffrage the poor and the unlearned have been swept away, and, in the long run, no majority has been great enough, no interest has been strong enough, to stand up against that general public opinion which continually grows in the direction of larger liberty. That public opinion has never known a refluent wave. What democracy has gained it has always kept. If you suppose that the progress of democracy among white men has been pleasant for those gentlemen who were at ease in their possessions, you have not read history. It is not an agreeable thing in any day or generation to distribute power which any set of men have always had exclusively to themselves among those who never had it before. It lessens one and exalts the other.

We of the North have by no means reached the perfection of self-government. Our apportionments of congressional districts are by no means utterly fair; but there is a limitation to injustice beyond which no party does to go, except in Indiana, where 4,000 majority in the State gives Republicans but three out of thirteen Congressmen. Our voters are not entirely free from undue influence, but there is a point beyond which no employer dares to go; and the votes in manufacturing districts show how sturdy is the defiance of most workingmen to even a dictation which is only inferred. Many a man seems to vote against his own and his employer's interest to show that he is in every way his own master. But whichever way he votes, his vote gets counted, and his will, whether it be feeble or sturdy, gets expressed.

It often happens that when debate springs up about the condition of affairs in other parts of the Union, when intimidation with shot-guns and mobs, when systematic falsifications of returns, are made subjects of comment, the errors and shortcomings in the North are dragged in as a justification for all that has happened of illegal action elsewhere. This kind of answer is so common, and so reminds one of the beam and the mote of Scripture, that it is worth analyzing. It is founded on the axiom of geometry that things which are equal to the same thing are equal to each other. This is undoubtedly true, if you are sure of the first equality. All things are not equal because they have the same names. When an employer intimates to some of his workmen that he cares most for men who look after his interests, and that his interests are with such and such a party, that employer is guilty of intimidation. When the interesting collection of gentlemen in a Southern district go forth to fire guns all night, in order, as the member from that district phrased it in open House, "to let the niggers know there is going to be a fair election the next day," they also are guilty of intimidation. Nevertheless, there is a difference; especially if there be an honest eye to see it. Murder and catching fish out of season are both crimes; but there are odds in crimes. Is a community where men violate the laws relating to close time debarred from complaining of murder elsewhere when its own families suffer by it? Must we ourselves reach absolute perfection before we ask others to treat us decently? Is robbery by violence to be tolerated and approved until we have utterly abolished petty larceny? The difference between the nation of highest and the nation of lowest civilization is only in degree.

But, after all, have we any right to complain of bad actions in the South? Why should not the citizens of each State be allowed to manage their own affairs? If you have any confidence in a republican form of government, why not show it? Let them wrestle with their problem alone. It is theirs; let them manage it. If it were founded on fact, this would be a powerful appeal to one who believes as does the writer of this article, in democracy—which is to say, in government by all the people; who believes that no community can permanently dethrone justice; who believes that all the laws of this universe are working towards larger liberty, greater equality, and truer fraternity.

But so far as federal elections are concerned, this appeal is founded on no fact whatever. When he goes to elect a member of Congress, the man from Mississippi or the man from Maine does not go to the polls as a citizen of Mississippi or of Maine, but as one of the people of the United States. All meet on common ground. They are citizens of one great republic—one and indivisible. Each one votes for the government of himself and of the other. The member from Mississippi whom the one elects and the member from Maine whom the other sends to Washington must unite in making the laws which govern both. The member from Mississippi has the same right to demand that the member from Maine shall be elected according to the law of the land as he has to demand the same thing of a colleague from his own State.

The object of assembling the Congress together is to declare the will of the people of the United States. How can that will be declared if there be more than twenty men returned to the House who never were elected, whose very presence is a violation of the Constitution of the

United States and of the law of the land? Still less will the will of the people be declared if those twenty men shift the control of the House from one party to the other. All free countries are governed by parties. They can never be governed any other way. If, then, fraud changes the very principles on which a country be governed, how can it be justified?

The attempted justification is this: We in the South, inasmuch as you have conferred the right of suffrage on the negro, and inasmuch as he is in the majority in many of our States, are in grave danger of being overwhelmed by mere ignorant numbers. We white people who pay the taxes will never permit these barbarians to rule over us. When we thought it necessary to prevent their domination, we swarmed around their cabins by night; we terrorized them; we showed them by examples that to be a politician was dangerous—that it led to death even. Those things have in great measure passed away now, and we simply falsify the count; we stuff the ballot-boxes. That makes less trouble and is just as effectual. Finding that their votes do not count, the negroes have lately ceased to vote. Whether clothed in the fervid eloquence of the late Mr. Grady or in the strange language of the governor of South Carolina, which will be quoted further on, this is the justification.

But this justification does not in the least touch the subject of federal elections. Every Southern man knows that there is no possibility of negro domination in the United States. No federal taxes will ever be imposed by the negro. No federal control is within his power. If all this wrong at the ballot-box be needed to preserve a proper local State government, to keep the Caucasian supreme in the State, not a living soul can dare to say that the same wrong, or any other, is necessary for Caucasian supremacy in the United States. In fact, transferred to the broader arena, the struggle is between the proud Caucasian and the Caucasian who is not so proud. If it be a race question, is there any reason why the white man in the South should have two votes to my one? Is he alone of mortals to eat his cake and have it too? Is he to suppress his negro and have him also? Among all his remedies, he has never proposed to surrender the representation which he owes to the very negro whose vote he refuses. The negro is human enough to be represented, but not human enough to have his vote counted.

Suppose it were a fact that negro domination and barbarism would follow from honest voting in the Southern State elections; suppose it were a fact that disregard of law and complete violation of the rights secured to the negro by the Constitution were absolutely necessary to preserve the civilization of the South; what has that to do with federal elections? Violation of law and disregard of statutes are not needed to save the United States.

Evidently, then, the question of race supremacy and of good government in the South has nothing whatever to do with that other question which concerns our whole people, whether the Republican party of the United States shall receive and have counted the votes which belong to it by virtue of the Constitution of the country. If you tell us that these are ignorant votes and ought not to be counted, we answer—and the answer is conclusive—that ignorance is everywhere, and that the Democratic party never failed to vote its ignorance to the uttermost verge of the law. Why should they, of all partisans, claim that only scholars should vote? Is the high and honorable esteem in which the chief officers of the greatest Democratic city—the city of New York—are now held among men an example of what intelligence will do for a community? If a man thinks the same thing of the republic that I do, must there be an inquest held over his intelligence before I can have his vote counted with mine in the government of the United States?

Or, to put it more directly, in the language of ex-Governor Bullock, of Georgia, which is quoted in the Atlanta *Constitution*, "It is now generally admitted with us that there is no more danger to the body politic from an ignorant and vicious black voter than from an illiterate and vicious white voter."

This system of false counting is not indulged in with impunity. Its baleful influence has nowhere more clearly shown

itself than in its effects upon the sense of justice of Southern men. Where else on earth would you get such a declaration as came from John P. Finley, of Greenville, Miss., for twelve years treasurer of his county—a declaration made in the presence of his fellow-citizens—that he did not consider ballot-box stuffing a crime, but a necessity; that in a case of race supremacy a man who stuffed a ballot-box would not forfeit either his social or business standing; and that ballot-box stuffing, so far as he knew, was looked upon by the best element in the South as a choice between necessary evils? You would search far before you would find the parallel of what Watt K. Johnson said in the same case (Hill *vs.* Catchings). "I would stuff a ballot-box," said he, "if required to do it, to put a good Republican in office, as I would a Democrat, as my object is to have a good honest government."

"Good honest government" by ballot-box stuffing! Think of the moral condition of a community where a man would dare openly to make such an avowal. In saying this there is no purpose to speak unkindly, but only to point out the inevitable effect upon public morals of continued violation of law. No community can encourage systematic disregard of law, even for purposes deemed justifiable, without injury to all other laws and to its own moral sense. It only needs to have the fence broken down in one place to have the bad cattle range through the whole garden.

While this state of things exists in Mississippi, a glance at South Carolina will give even more food for reflection. In that State, by law there was but one registration at the home of the voter (at the polling precinct), which took place in 1882. Since that time all additions to the list have been made at the county seats. Whenever a man moves not merely from county to county, not merely from town to town, not only from precinct to precinct, but whenever he removes from house to house in the same precinct, he must have a new certificate from the supervisor of registration, who, nominally at least, has his office at the county seat. Without this changed certificate, he is disfranchised. If he travels to the county seat and cannot find his supervisor, he has no remedy. Even among the most intelligent and alert politicians it is easy to see what a vast chance there is for misbehavior, and it needs no specification to show how it works in South Carolina among that part of the population which has just struggled to manhood. But in order that the work of government by the minority may be complete, the law decrees that there shall be eight different ballot-boxes, so that those who can read can know where to put their tickets and those who cannot read can exercise their ingenuity. The law also provides that the officials, who alone are present with the voter, shall read to him the inscriptions on the ballot-boxes; but as the governor provides that all the officials shall be of one party, it is easy to see how valuable this provision is. In order that the negro shall have no advantage from the position of the boxes becoming known, the boxes are shuffled from time to time, and if a ballot gets into a wrong box it cannot be counted. In the Miller and Elliott case, Mr. Elliott's counsel, unable to deny the shifting of ballot-boxes, justifies it on the ground that there is no law against it, and on the further ground that it is in the spirit of the law; which last defence is true.

With this preliminary statement the reader can enter into the grim humor of the reply of the governor of South Carolina, himself a candidate for re-election, when the Republicans asked that among the judges of election should be some Republicans. It would seem not unreasonable that one of the great parties to the political contest should have a "sworn official" to see that the voter was correctly told which box to put his vote into, and to see that the vote was rightly counted. The governor, however, rose above party, rejected the Republican request, put none but Democrats on guard, and in his reply used, among other similar things, the following words:

> "To the eternal honor of our State and the Democratic party, it can now be said that our elections are the freest and fairest in the world, and that not a single citizen of hers, no matter what his rank, color, or condition, can, under her just and equal laws, impartially administered, as they are, be by any perversion or intimidation barred

at the polls from the free and full exercise of his suffrage. There is not only perfect freedom in voting, but the amplest protection afforded the voter."

These words were in his letter of Sept. 29, 1888. On July 30 preceding, just two months before, that same governor said, in a public speech, which you will find in the Charleston *News and Courier* of the 31st, the following:

"We have now the rule of a minority of 400,000 over a majority of 600,000. No army at Austerlitz or Waterloo or Gettysburg could ever be wielded like that mass of 600,000 people. The only thing which stands to-day between us and their rule is a flimsy statute—the eight-box law—which depends for its effectiveness upon the unity of the white people."

Of course, the utterance of July 30 was for the home market, and the letter of September for export. But when you consider that both these statements were made to the same community, by the governor of the State, you can form some idea of the effect which this system of action at the polls has had on the *morale* of the people.

This course of utterly riding over the will of the voter has been carried to such excess as was never dreamed at the outset, even by those who planned the first great wrongs. When South Carolina, by a gerrymander which remains up to date the greatest spectacle that has ever been put upon a map, and which to this day almost defies belief, put 31,000 colored people in one district with only 6,000 whites, the framers of the act meant at least that that district should have the representative of its choice. But, encouraged by the success of the Southern plan elsewhere, even that district has been taken away. It is well known that in the South itself this was regarded as an outrage, but the voice of those so regarding it has fallen into the silence of consent.

In Alabama the 4th district was so made that 27,000 colored men were packed in with 6,000 whites, and at every election the Democratic candidate is returned. So flagrant was one of the instances that the Forty-eighth Congress, Democratic by ninety-five majority, was obliged to disgorge the sitting member, which it did after waiting for the death of the contestant.

If any man replies, as sometimes people do, "You are assuming that the colored man will vote your ticket, and that is not so," the plain answer is: "It is either so or not so. If it is so, then we are deprived of a vote which belongs to us under the Constitution of the United States. If it be not so, and the negro is voting the Democratic ticket from choice, where is your race issue? If both white man and negro are agreed on white supremacy, why do you send so much Southern eloquence North to touch our Caucasian hearts?"

This state of things cannot be good for this nation, either North or South. Remember that this is not a question of outcries and epithets, of reproaches and hysterics. It is a plain question of justice and fair-dealing. Both sections of this country can afford to be fair and open with each other. If you say that you have a right of local self-government which we have no business to interfere with, and that, unless you are allowed to go on in your own way, you fear disaster most foul, the next thing for all of us to do is to find some plan which will give us the votes of the whole people of the United States, and leave you your local self-government.

To put this whole matter in a nutshell, the Republican party alleges that it is deprived by all manner of devices—differing in different States, but having one common purpose—of votes which under the Constitution of the land that party is entitled to. To this the parties offending reply that the suppression of votes and voters is necessary to prevent the threatened destruction of local self-government by the numerical superiority of race ignorance in very many States. We have a right, say they, to prevent, by violence or by fraud, if need be, the control of the ignorant in our own States.

Suppose all that to be so; suppose that all you are doing is needful for your preservation, and that you must keep on at all costs: how does that give you the right to govern us by your methods? If you have the right of local self-government, have we not the right of national self-government? If you of the States

are willing to take all hazards to save yourselves from ignorant negro domination, are you going to blame us of the United States if we refuse to submit to fraudulent domination? You think negro domination unbearable. We think fraudulent domination a crime.

But we need not quarrel. There must be some remedy consistent with the Constitution, which was intended to provide for this very local government, and for this very federal government. Each was to be respected within its sphere, and each was to subsist side by side with the other. So far as the election of members of Congress was concerned, the Constitution provides for the very condition in which we find ourselves. In the first instance, the legislature of the State may make the regulations for the election of members, but Congress may make or alter them in accordance with its own will. It may alter them by providing for federal supervision, or it may make such new regulations as will assume the entire election from registration to certification.

We have, then, two kinds of remedy—the alteration of State regulations and the making of new ones of our own. As to the first method, so far as it was exhibited in the proposed Senate bill for supervision, the Senator from Alabama, Mr. Pugh, when the bill was presented in the Senate, rose and declared:

> "If the bill becomes a law, its execution will insure the shedding of blood and the destruction of the peace and good order of this country. Its passage will be resisted by every parliamentary method, and every method allowed by the Constitution of the United States."

This declaration, made at a time when debate is not usual on a bill, will attract attention to the objections which are urged against the supervisor law. Some of them are worth reproducing in order that people may carefully consider all parts of a question which must have a settlement, and can never have any final settlement which is not right. The supervisor law is the subject of objection, among other things, because, while it leaves the elections in the hands of the States, it proposes to set watchers over the State officials, and to use a kind of dual control liable to all manner of friction. Moreover, the exercise of this supervisory power is to be called into being by petition, thus singling out by their own signatures those persons who are responsible for the claim that the elections need supervision, and who thereby become obnoxious to the very violence which they are striving to avoid.

In some States, like North Carolina and Virginia, a supervisor law would be very helpful; but there are States and communities with regard to which it is said that it would be assuming a terrible responsibility to enact it. Against such a law the South urges sectionalism and its interference with local self-government; for no supervision which does not examine all the boxes and count all the votes is worth the trouble of enacting. It is true that in New York City, under the able and thorough management of the chief supervisor, great results have been accomplished by this law, and elections are held so satisfactory to both parties that there have been no contested elections from that city in my remembrance. Whether in other regions, among a different people, in sparsely settled places, this could be so well done is the point at issue.

In what we call theory, no really valid objection can be urged against federal supervision, for an honest count can hurt no one. Even if all the boxes are subjected to the supervision of a second set of men, the result in New York proves that when once established it is a solid safeguard satisfactory to honest people. So easily does the system now move, and so free is it from friction, that it is doubtful if a tenth of the readers of this article even remember that the system is fully established. Many contests, however, were necessary to thus establish it in New York City. But this is a practical world, where all unnecessary difficulties ought to be avoided, and where the middle way is often the best because it is the middle way.

In this case the middle course is apparently—but only apparently—the most radical. Let the country at once assume at least the count and return of its own elections. It may be that this could be done in a way that would leave the States which object to supervision free from all interference from their neighbors, as it

would certainly leave us free from false counting and false returns. They could then govern their own people in their own way, free from federal supervision in congressional elections, and the United States could govern itself free from all fear of those practices deemed indispensable to local government.

Elections, Primary. See Direct Primary; Direct Election of Senators.

Elective Franchise. During the Colonial period the people elected their representatives in the assemblies or legislatures by ballot or, as in Virginia, by a *viva voce* vote. The governors of Rhode Island and Connecticut were the only ones elected by the people, with the exception of Massachusetts from 1620 to 1691. The Constitution of the United States (*q. v.*) prescribes the methods of electing the President, Vice-President, and members of each House of Congress. Local elections are regulated by State laws.

REGISTRATION OF VOTERS

The registration of voters is required in the States of Alabama, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Indiana, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Pennsylvania (in cities), South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming, Arizona, and New Mexico.

In Ohio it is required in cities of 11,800 to 100,000 population.

In Illinois registration of voters is required by law. In all incorporated cities, villages, and towns which have adopted the Election Commissioner Act of the State persons not registered have no vote.

In Iowa, in cities having 3,500 inhabitants. In Nebraska, in cities of over 7,000 inhabitants. In Kansas in all cities of the first and second class.

In Kentucky in all cities of the first, second, third, and fourth classes; in Kansas, in cities of the first and second classes; in North Dakota in cities of 800 and over.

In Missouri, it is required in cities of 100,000 inhabitants and over.

In Oklahoma it is required in all cities of the first class.

In Rhode Island non-taxpayers are required to register before June 30.

The registration of voters is not required in Arkansas or Texas.

QUALIFICATIONS FOR VOTING.

*Alabama.**—Citizen of United States or alien who has declared intention *(j)*; must have resided in State two years, county one year, town three months; persons convicted of treason or other felonies, idiots, or insane excluded.

*Arizona.**—Citizen of United States by nativity or naturalization *(a) (b) (h)*; must have resided in State one year, county thirty days; idiots, insane, felons, persons under guardianship excluded.

*Arkansas.**—Citizen of the United States or alien who has declared intention; must have resided in State one year, county six months, town thirty days; idiots, insane, persons convicted of felony or failing to pay poll-tax, United States soldiers or marines excluded.

*California.**—Citizen by nativity, either male or female, naturalization, or treaty of Queretaro; must have resided in State one year, county ninety days; natives of China, idiots, insane, embezzlers of public moneys, and persons convicted of infamous crime excluded.

*Colorado.**—Citizen, native or naturalized, male or female, who is duly registered; must have resided in the State one year, county ninety days; persons confined in public prison, under guardianship, *non compos mentis*, insane, excluded.

*Connecticut.**—Citizen of United States who can read English language; must have resided in the State one year, town six months; persons convicted of heinous crime, unless pardoned, excluded.

*Delaware.**—Citizen of the United States; must have resided in the State one year, county three months; insane, paupers, or persons convicted of felony unpardoned excluded.

District of Columbia.—See footnote at end of article.

*Florida.**—Citizen of the United States; must have resided in the State one year, county six months; idiots, duelists, persons convicted of felony or any infamous crime excluded.

Georgia. (*i*)—Citizen of the United States who has paid all his taxes since

1877; must have resided in the State one year, county six months; persons convicted of felony, bribery, or larceny, unless pardoned, idiots and insane excluded.

*Idaho.**—Citizen of the United States, male or female; must have resided in the State six months, county thirty days, town thirty days; idiots, insane, persons convicted of felony, bigamists, polygamists, persons under guardianship (*n*) excluded.

*Illinois.**—Citizen of the United States (*b*); must have resided in the State one year, county ninety days, town thirty days; persons convicted of felony or bribery in elections, unless restored to citizenship, excluded (*h*).

*Indiana.**—Citizen or alien who has declared intention and resided one year in United States; must have resided in the State six months, town sixty days; United States soldiers, sailors, and marines, and persons convicted of infamous crime excluded (*l*).

*Iowa.**—Citizen of the United States (*o*); must have resided in the State six months, county sixty days; idiots, insane, persons convicted of infamous crime, United States soldiers excluded (*h*).

*Kansas.**—Citizen of United States or alien who has declared intention (*o*); must have resided in the State six months, county thirty days, town thirty days; persons convicted of treason or felony, insane, under guardianship excluded (*d*).

*Kentucky.**—Citizen of the United States (*b*); must have resided in the State one year, county six months, town sixty days; persons convicted of treason, felony, or bribery in an election, idiots and insane excluded (*h*) (*m*).

*Louisiana.**—Those able to read or write, or who own $300 worth of property assessed in their names, or whose father or grandfather was entitled to vote on Jan. 1, 1867; citizen of the United States; must have resided in the State two years, county one year; idiots, insane, felons, persons under indictment, inmates of prison or charitable institution except soldiers' home excluded.

*Maine.**—Citizen of the United States; must have resided in the State three months, county three months, town three months; paupers and Indians not taxed and persons under guardianship excluded.†

*Maryland.**—Citizen of the United States; must have resided in the State one year, county six months, town six months; felons not pardoned, lunatics, persons *non compos mentis* or convicted of bribery excluded.

*Massachusetts.**—Citizen who can read and write (*b*); must have resided in the State one year, county six months, town six months; paupers and persons under guardianship excluded.

*Michigan.**—Citizen of the United States or alien who declared intention two years and six months prior to Nov. 8, 1894 (*b*); must have resided in State six months, in county twenty days, in town twenty days; Indians with tribal relations excluded.

*Minnesota.**—Citizen of the United States who has been such for three months preceding election (*b*); must have resided in State six months, county thirty days, town thirty days; persons convicted of treason or felony, unpardoned, under guardianship, insane, Indians lacking customs of civilization excluded.

*Mississippi.**—Citizen of the United States who can read or understand constitution of State; must have resided in State two years, county one year, town one year; insane, idiots not taxed, felons, persons who have not paid taxes, bigamists excluded.

*Missouri.**—Citizen of the United States or alien who has declared intention not less than one year or more than five before election; must have resided in State two years, county one year, town one year; persons in poorhouses or asylums at public expense, those in prison or convicted of infamous crimes, excluded (*k*).

*Montana.**—Citizen of the United States (*b*); must have resided in State one year, county thirty days; felons not pardoned, idiots, insane, Indians excluded (*p*) (*g*).

*Nebraska.**—Citizen of the United States or alien who has declared intention thirty days before election (*b*); must have resided in State six months, county forty days, town thirty days; persons convicted of treason or felony, unless restored to civil rights, persons *non compos mentis* excluded (*h*).

*Nevada.**—Citizen of the United States; must have resided in State six months, county thirty days, town thirty days; idiots, insane, unpardoned convicts, Indians, Chinese excluded.

*New Hampshire.**—Citizen of the United States (*a*); must have resided in State six months, county six months, town six months; paupers excluded (*h*).

*New Jersey.**—Citizen of the United States; must have resided in State one year, county five months; idiots, paupers, insane, persons convicted of certain crime, unless pardoned or restored by law, excluded (*j*).

*New Mexico.**—Citizen of the United States; must have resided in State six months, county three months, town thirty days; persons convicted of felony, unless pardoned, United States soldier, sailor, or camp follower, Indians excluded.

*New York.**—Citizen who shall have been a citizen for ninety days prior to election; must have resided in State one year (*k*), county four months, town (*l*); offenders against elective franchise rights, persons guilty of bribery, betting on elections, or convicted of a felony and not restored to citizenship by the Executive excluded. Convicts in House of Refuge or Reformatory not disqualified.

Woman otherwise qualified but for sex may vote at village elections or town meetings to raise money by tax or assessment if she owns property assessed upon the last preceding assessment roll. Elector of town not entitled to vote on proposition for raising of money or incurring town liability unless he or his wife owns property in town assessed on last assessment roll.

North Carolina.—Citizen of the United States; must have resided in State two years, county six months; persons convicted of felony or infamous crime, idiots, lunatics excluded (*o*).

*North Dakota.**—Citizen of the United States and civilized Indians† (*a*); must have resided in State one year, county six months; persons under guardianship, *non compos mentis*, or convicted of felony and treason, unless restored to civil rights, excluded.

*Ohio.**—Citizen of the United States (*a*); must have resided in State one year, county thirty days, town twenty days; idiots, insane, and felons, persons in the United States military or naval service on duty in Ohio excluded.

*Oklahama.**—Citizen of the United States (*a*) (*j*); must have resided in State one year, county six months; town none; felons (*p*), idiots, insane, paupers excluded (*q*) (*r*).

*Oregon.**—Citizen of the United States or alien who has declared intention more than one year prior to election (*a*); idiots, insane, persons convicted of felony, Chinese excluded.

*Pennsylvania.**—Citizen of the United States at least one month, and if 22 years old or more must have paid tax within two years; must have resided in State one year; persons convicted of perjury and fraud as election officers, or bribery of voters excluded.

*Rhode Island.**—Citizen of the United States; must have resided in State two years, town six months; paupers and lunatics excluded (*g*).

South Carolina.—Citizen of United States (*e*); must have resided in State two years (*c*), county one year, town four months; felons, persons convicted of bribery, unless pardoned, insane, paupers excluded.

*South Dakota.**—Citizen of the United States or alien who has declared intention, Indian who has severed tribal relations (*a*); must have resided in State six months (§), county thirty days, town ten days; persons under guardianship, insane, convicted of treason or felony, unless pardoned, United States soldiers, seamen, and marines excluded.

*Tennessee.**—Citizen of the United

NOTES: Alabama to Nevada:

* Australian Ballot law or a modification of it in force. † Or a person unable to read the Constitution in English and to write his name. (*a*) Or citizens of Mexico who desire to become citizens under treaties of 1848 and 1854. (*b*) Women can vote in school elections. (*c*) Clergymen are qualified after six months' residence in precinct. (*d*) Also public embezzlers, persons guilty of bribery, dishonorably discharged soldiers from U. S. service, unless reinstated. (*g*) Also soldiers, sailors, and marines in U. S. service. (*h*) No soldier, seaman, or marine deemed a resident because stationed in State. (*i*) The Australian system sometimes prevails in municipal primaries in Georgia, but same is made applicable by rule of party ordering primary and not by law. (*j*) Poll-taxes must be paid to date, by Feb. 1, preceding election. (*k*) Also soldiers (except those living in soldiers' homes), sailors, and marines in U. S. service. (*l*) During term fixed by court. (*m*) Widows and spinsters owning property or having ward of school age may vote in school elections. (*n*) Also inmates of houses of ill fame. (*o*) Women can vote in school and city elections. (*p*) Indians who have not severed tribal relations.

States who has paid poll-tax of preceding year; must have resided in State one year, county six months; persons convicted of bribery or other infamous offence excluded.

*Texas.**—Citizen of the United States or alien who has declared intention six months prior to election; must have resided in State one year, county six months, town six months; idiots, lunatics, paupers, felons, unless pardoned or restored, United States soldiers, marines, and seamen excluded (*m*).

*Utah.**—Citizen of the United States, male or female, ninety days prior to election; must have resided in State one year, county four months; idiots, insane, persons convicted of treason or crime against elective franchise, unless pardoned, excluded (*j*).

*Vermont.**—Citizen of the United States; must have resided in State one year, county three months, town three months; those lacking approbation of local board of civil authority excluded.

*Virginia.**—See note; must have resided in State two years, county one year, town one year; idiots, lunatics, paupers excluded (*f*) (*j*).

*Washington.**—Citizen of the United States and all electors of Territory prior to Statehood (*a*); must have resided in State one year, county ninety days, town thirty days; idiots, lunatics, persons convicted of infamous crimes, Indians not taxed excluded.

*West Virginia.**—Citizen of the State; must have resided in State one year, county sixty days, town six months; paupers, idiots, lunatics, persons convicted of treason, felony, or bribery at elections, excluded.

*Wisconsin.**—Citizen of the United States or alien who declared intention prior to Dec. 1, 1908 (right ceases Dec. 1, 1912) civilized Indians† (*a*); must have resided in State one year, county ten days, town ten days; persons under guardianship, insane, convicted of treason, felony (*p*), or betting on elections, duelists, excluded.

*Wyoming.**—Citizen of the United States, male or female; must have resided in State one year, county sixty days, town ten days; idiots, insane, felons, persons unable to read State constitution in the English language excluded. See DISFRANCHISEMENT.

Electoral College, THE. The people do not vote directly for President and Vice-President, but they choose, for each Congressional district in the respective States, a representative in an electoral college, which consists of as many members as there are Congressional districts in each State, besides its two Senators. The theory of the framers of the Constitution was that by this means the best men of the country would be chosen in the several districts, and they would better express the wishes of the people concerning a choice of President and Vice-President than a vote directly by the people

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NOTES: Nevada to Wyoming:

* Australian Ballot law or a modification of it in force. † Indians must have severed tribal relations. § One year's residence in the United States prior to election required. (*a*) Women can vote in school elections. (*c*) Ministers in charge of an organized church and teachers of public schools are entitled to vote after six months' residence in the State. (*d*) Actual residence in the precinct or district required. (*e*) Who has paid six months before election any poll-tax then due, and can read and write any section of the State constitution, or can show that he owns and has paid all taxes due the previous year on property in the State assessed at $300 or more. (*f*) Or convicted of bribery, embezzlement of public funds, treason, forgery, perjury, felony, and petty larceny, duellists and abettors, unless pardoned by legislature. (*g*) Or persons *non compos mentis;* sentence to State prison for one year or more takes away right to vote until restored by General Assembly, under guardianship. (*h*) Also persons excused from paying taxes at their own request, and those unable to read the State constitution in English, or write. (*j*) No soldier, seaman, or marine deemed a resident because stationed in the State. (*k*) Inhabitance not residence. (*l*) Thirty days in election district. (*m*) And any person subject to poll-tax who failed to pay same prior to Feb. 1 of year in which he offers to vote. (*n*) Must be resident of county to vote for county officers. (*o*) All persons unable to read and write, and whose ancestors were not entitled to vote prior to Jan. 1, 1867. (*p*) Unless restored to civil rights. (*q*) Except Federal and Confederate soldiers. (*r*) Those unable to read and write State constitution.

In Virginia—Voting qualifications: All persons who six months before the election have paid their State taxes for the three preceding years. Also any person who served in time of war in the army or navy of the United States, of the Confederate States, or of any State of the United States, or of the Confederate States.

Residents of the District of Columbia never had the right to vote therein for national officers, or on other matters of national concern, after the territory embraced in it was ceded to the United States and became the seat of the general government.

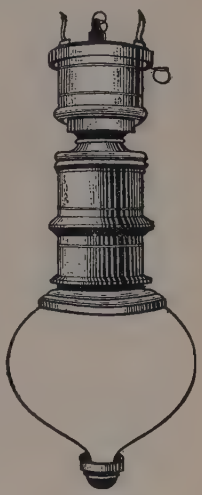
for these officers. The several electors chosen in the different States meet at their respective State capitals on the first Wednesday in December, and name in their ballots the persons for President and Vice-President. Then each electoral college makes three lists of the names voted for these offices. These lists must be sent to the president of the Senate by the first Wednesday of January. Congress meets in joint session to count the votes on the second Wednesday of February. See PRESIDENT, VOTE FOR.

Electoral Commission. A Republican National Convention assembled at Cincinnati, June 16, 1876, and nominated Rutherford Birchard Hayes, of Ohio, for President, and William A. Wheeler, of New York, for Vice-President. On the 27th a Democratic National Convention assembled at St. Louis and nominated Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, for President, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana, for Vice-President. A very excited canvass succeeded, and so vehement became the lawlessness in some of the Southern States that at times local civil war seemed inevitable. The result of the election was in doubt for some time, each party claiming for its candidate a majority. In the electoral college 185 votes were necessary to the success of a candidate. It was decided after the election that Mr. Tilden had 184. Then ensued a long and bitter contest in South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana over the official returns, each party charging the other with fraud. There was intense excitement in the Gulf region. In order to secure fair play, President Grant issued an order (Nov. 10, 1876) to General Sherman to instruct military officers in the South to be vigilant, to preserve peace and good order, and see that legal boards of canvassers of the votes cast at the election were unmolested. He also appointed distinguished gentlemen of both political parties to go to Louisiana and Florida to be present at the reception of the returns and the counting of the votes. The result was that it was decided, on the count by returning boards, that Hayes had a majority of the electoral votes. The friends of Mr. Tilden were not satisfied. There was a Democratic majority in the House of Representatives. On Dec. 4 a resolution was adopted, providing for the investigation of the action of returning boards in South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana. There was much excitement in Congress and anxiety among the people. Thoughtful men saw much trouble at the final counting of the votes of the electoral colleges by the president of the Senate, according to the prescription of the Constitution, for already his absolute power in the matter was questioned. Proctor Knott, of Kentucky, offered a resolution for the appointment of a committee of seven members, to act in conjunction with a similar committee that might be appointed by the Senate, to prepare and report a plan for the creation of a tribunal to count the electoral votes, whose authority no one could question, and whose decision all could accept as final. The resolution was adopted. The Senate appointed a committee; and on Jan. 18, 1877, the joint committee, consisting of fourteen members, reported a bill that provided for the meeting of both Houses in the hall of the House of Representatives on Feb. 1, 1877, to there count the votes in accordance with a plan which the committee proposed. In case of more than one return from a State, all such returns, having been made by appointed tellers, should be, upon objections being made, submitted to the judgment and decision, as to which was the lawful and true electoral vote of the State, of a commission of fifteen, to be composed of five members from each House, to be appointed *viva voce*, Jan. 30, with four associate justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, who should, on Jan. 30, select another of the justices of the Supreme Court, the entire commission to be presided over by the associate justice longest in commission. After much debate, the bill passed both Houses. It became a law, by the signature of the President, Jan. 29, 1877. The next day the two Houses each selected five of its members to serve on the Electoral Commission, the Senate members being George F. Edmunds (Vt.), Oliver P. Morton (Ind.), Frederick T. Frelinghuysen (N. J.), Thomas F. Bayard (Del.), and Allen G. Thurman (O.), and the House members, Henry B. Payne (O.), Eppa Hunton (Va.), Josiah G. Abbott (Mass.), James A. Garfield (O.), and George F.

Hoar (Mass.). Senator Francis Kernan (N. Y.) was afterwards substituted for Senator Thurman, who had become ill. Judges Clifford, Miller, Field, and Strong, of the Supreme Court, were named in the bill, and these chose as the fifth member of associate justices Joseph P. Bradley. The Electoral Commission assembled in the hall of the House of Representatives, Feb. 1, 1877. The legality of returns from several States was questioned, and was passed upon and decided by the commission. The counting was completed on March 2, and the commission made the final decision in all cases. The president of the Senate then announced that Hayes and Wheeler were elected. The forty-fourth Congress finally adjourned on Saturday, March 3. March 4, prescribed as the day for the taking of the oath of office by the President, falling on Sunday, Mr. Hayes, to prevent any technical objections that might be raised, privately took the oath of office on that day, and on Monday, the 5th, he was publicly inaugurated, in the presence of a vast multitude of his fellow-citizens.

Electricity. The employment of electricity for illumination, and as a mover of machinery, has added an interesting chapter to the volume of our national history; and the name of Edison as one of the chief promoters of the use of the mysterious agent for lighting, heating, and motive power is coextensive with the realm of civilization. Ever since the discovery of electro-magnetism, thoughtful men have contemplated the possibility of producing a controllable electric illuminator and motor. In 1845 John W. Starr, of Cincinnati, filed a caveat in the United States Patent Office for a "divisible electric light." He went to England to complete and prove the utility of his invention. There George Peabody, the American banker, offered him all the money he might need, in case his experiment should be successful. It proved so at an exhibition of it at Manchester before scientific men. Professor Faraday pronounced it perfect. Starr was so excited by his success that he died that night, and nothing more was done with the invention. In 1859 Prof. Moses G. Farmer (*q. v.*) lighted a parlor at Salem, Mass., by an electric lamp, but the cost of producing it, by means of a galvanic battery in the cellar, was so great that the use of it was abandoned. These were the pioneers in our country. Now the generation of electricity by dynamos, magnets, etc., produces brilliant light at less cost than by illuminating gas. It is used so extensively in cities for various purposes that it has created a new phrase in our vocabulary — "Industrial Electricity." For the provision of light, heat, and motive power, extensive plants are established in almost every city, town, and village in the country. For light, two kinds of lamps are used—the *arc* and the *incandescent*. Electricity moves sewing-machines, elevators, street-railway cars, the machinery of factories, agricultural implements, and mining drills; and, with all its marvellous adaptations and achievements towards the close of the nineteenth century, its development was then considered still in its infancy.

INCANDESCENT LAMP.



ARC LIGHT.

Electricity, Farming by. See Farming by Electricity.

Electricity in the Nineteenth Century. Elihu Thomson (*q. v.*), the celebrated inventor and electrician, writes as follows:

The latter half of the nineteenth century must ever remain memorable, not only for the great advances in nearly all the useful arts, but for the peculiarly rapid electric progress, and the profound effect which it has had upon the lives and business of the people. In the preceding century we find no evidences of the ap-

plication of electricity to any useful purpose. Few of the more important principles of the science were then known. Franklin's invention of the lightning-rod was not intended to utilize electric force, but to guard life and property from the perils of the thunder-storm. Franklin's kite experiment confirmed the long-suspected identity of lightning and electric sparks. It was not, however, until the discovery by Alexander Volta, in 1799, of his pile, or battery, that electricity could take its place as an agent of practical value. Volta, when he made this great discovery, was following the work of Galvani, begun in 1786. But Galvani in his experiments mistook the effect for the cause, and so missed making the unique demonstration that two different metals immersed in a solution could set up an electric current. Volta brought to the notice of the world the first means for obtaining a steady flow of electricity.

The simplest facts of electro-magnetism, upon which much of the later electrical developments depend, remained entirely unknown until the first quarter of the nineteenth century. Davy first showed the electric arc or "arch" on a small scale between pieces of carbon. He also laid the foundation for future electro-chemical work by decomposing by the battery current potash and soda, and thus isolating the alkali metals, potassium and sodium, for the first time. A fund was soon subscribed by "a few zealous cultivators and patrons of science," interested in the discovery of Davy, and he had at his service no less than 2,000 cells of voltaic battery. With the intense currents obtained from it he again demonstrated the wonderful and brilliant phenomenon of the electric arc, by first closing the circuit of the battery through terminals of hardwood charcoal and then separating them for a short distance. A magnificent arch of flame was maintained between the separated ends, and the light from the charcoal pieces was of dazzling splendor. Thus was born into the world the electric arc light, of which there are now many hundreds of thousands burning nightly in our own country alone.

As early as 1774 attempts were made by Le Sage, of Geneva, to apply frictional electricity to telegraphy. It was easy enough to stop and start a current in a line of wire connecting two points, but something more than that was requisite. A good receiver, or means for recognizing the presence or absence of current in the wire or circuit, did not exist. The art had to wait for the discovery of the effects of electric current upon magnets and the production of magnetism by such currents. Curiously, even in 1802 the fact that a wire conveying a current would deflect a compass needle was observed by Romagnosi, of Trente, but it was afterwards forgotten, and not until 1819 was any real advance made.

It was then that Oersted, of Copenhagen, showed that a magnet tends to set itself at right angles to the wire conveying current and that the direction of turning depends on the direction of the current. The study of the magnetic effects of electric currents by Arago, Ampère, and the production of the electro-magnet by Sturgeon, together with the very valuable work of Henry and others, made possible the completion of the electric telegraph. This was done by Morse and Vail in America, and almost simultaneously by workers abroad, but, before Morse had entered the field, Prof. Joseph Henry had exemplified by experiments the working of electric signalling by electro-magnets over a short line. It was Henry, in fact, who first made a practically useful electro-magnet of soft iron. The history of the electric telegraph teaches us that to no single individual is the invention due. The Morse system had been demonstrated in 1837, but not until 1844 was the first telegraph line built. It connected Baltimore and Washington, and the funds for defraying its cost were only obtained from Congress after a severe struggle. The success of the Morse telegraph was soon followed by the establishment of telegraph lines as a means of communication between all the large cities and populous districts. Scarcely ten years elapsed before the possibility of a transatlantic telegraph was mooted. The cable laid in 1858 was a failure. A few words passed, and then the cable broke down completely. A renewed effort to lay a cable was made in 1866, but disappointment again followed: the cable broke in mid-ocean. The great task was suc-

cessfully accomplished in the following year. Even the lost cable of 1866 was found, spliced to a new cable, and completed soon after as a second working line. The delicate instruments for the working of these long cables were due to the genius of Sir William Thomson, now Lord Kelvin. The number of cables joining the Eastern and Western hemispheres has been increased from time to time, and the opening of a new cable is now an ordinary occurrence, calling for little or no especial note.

The introduction of the electric telegraph was followed by the invention of various signalling systems, the most important being the fire-alarm telegraph, automatic clock systems, automatic electric fire signals, burglar alarms, telegraphs which print words and characters, as in the stock "ticker," the telautograph, in which writing is reproduced at the receiving end of the line, the duplex, quadruplex, and multiplex systems of telegraphy, automatic transmitting machines and rapid recorders, etc.

The most important invention is probably that of wireless telegraphy, which is in use on ships, and, to a limited extent, on land.

The first example of a working type of an arc lamp was that of W. E. Staite, in 1847. But it was a long time before the electric arc acquired any importance as a practical illuminant; the expense was too great, and the batteries soon became exhausted. Michael Faraday, a most worthy successor of Davy, made the exceedingly important observation that a wire, if moved in the field of a magnet, would yield a current of electricity. Simple as the discovery was, its effect has been stupendous. The fundamental principle of the future dynamo electric machine was discovered by him. This was in 1831. Both the electric motor and the dynamo generator were now potentially present with us. Here, then, was the embryo dynamo. The century closed with single dynamo machines of over 5,000 horse-power capacity, and with single power stations in which the total electric generation by such machines is 75,000 to 100,000 horse-power. So perfect is the modern dynamo that out of 1,000 horse-power expended in driving it, 950 or more may be delivered to the electric line as electric energy. The electric motor, now so common, is a machine like the dynamo, in which the principle of action is simply reversed; electric energy delivered from the lines becomes again mechanical motion or power.

The decade between 1860 and 1870 opened a new era in the construction and working of dynamo machines and motors. Gramme, in 1870, first succeeded in producing a highly efficient, compact, and durable continuous-current dynamo. It was in a sense the culmination of many years of development, beginning with the early attempts immediately following Faraday's discovery, already referred to. In 1872 Von Hefner Alteneck, in Berlin, modified the ring winding of Gramme and produced the "drum winding," which avoided the necessity for threading wire through the centre of the iron ring as in the Gramme construction.

At the Centennial Exhibition, held at Philadelphia in 1876, but two exhibits of electric-lighting apparatus were to be found. Of these one was the Gramme and the other the Wallace-Farmer exhibit. The Wallace exhibit contained other examples reflecting great credit on this American pioneer in dynamo work. Some of these machines were very similar in construction to later forms which went into very extensive use. The large search-lights occasionally used in night illumination during the exhibitions were operated by the current from Wallace-Farmer machines.

The Centennial Exhibition also marks the beginning—the very birth, it may be said—of an electric invention destined to become, before the close of the century, a most potent factor in human affairs. The speaking telephone of Alexander Graham Bell was there exhibited for the first time to the savants, among whom was the distinguished electrician and scientist Sir William Thomson. For the first time in the history of the world a structure of copper wire and iron spoke to a listening ear. The instruments were, moreover, the acme of simplicity. Within a year many a boy had constructed a pair of telephones at an expenditure for material of only a few pennies. The transmitter was only suited for use on short lines, and was soon afterwards replaced by various forms of

carbon microphone transmitters, to the production of which many inventors had turned their attention, notably Edison, Hughes, Blake, and Hunnings.

Few of those who talk between Boston and Chicago know that in doing so they have for the exclusive use of their voices a total of over 1,000,000 lbs. of copper wire in the single line. There probably now exist in the United States alone between 75,000 and 100,000 miles of hard-drawn copper wire for long-distance telephone service, and over 150,000 miles of wire in underground conduits. There are upward of 750,000 telephones in the United States, and, including both overhead and underground lines, a total of more than 500,000 miles of wire.

The display of electric light during the Paris Exposition of 1878 was the first memorable use of the electric light on a large scale. The source of light was the "electric candle" of Paul Jablochkoff, a Russian engineer. It was a strikingly original and simple arc lamp. Instead of placing the two carbons point to point, as had been done in nearly all previous lamps, he placed them side by side, with a strip of baked kaolin between them. Owing to unforeseen difficulties it was gradually abandoned, after having served a great purpose in directing the attention of the world to the possibilities of the electric arc in lighting.

Inventors in America were not idle. By the close of 1878, Brush, of Cleveland, had brought out his series system of arc lights, including special dynamos, lamps, etc., and by the middle of 1879 had in operation machines each capable of maintaining sixteen arc lamps on one wire. Weston, of Newark, had also in operation circuits of arc lamps, and the Thomson-Houston system had just started in commercial work with eight arc lamps in series from a single dynamo. Maxim and Fuller, in New York, were working arc lamps from their machines.

Almost simultaneously with the beginning of the commercial work of arc lighting, Edison, in a successful effort to provide a small electric lamp for general distribution in place of gas, brought to public notice his carbon filament incandescent lamp. Edison worked for nearly two years on a lamp based upon the old idea of incandescent platinum strips or wires, but without success. The announcement of his lamp caused a heavy drop in gas shares, long before the problem was really solved by a masterly stroke in his carbon filament lamp. Curiously, the nearest approach to the carbon filament lamp had been made in 1845, by Starr, an American, who described in a British patent specification a lamp in which electric current passed through a thin strip of carbon kept it heated while surrounded by a glass bulb in which a vacuum was maintained. Starr had exhibited his lamps to Faraday, in England, and was preparing to construct dynamos to furnish electric current for them in place of batteries, but sudden death put an end to his labors.

The Edison lamp differed from those which preceded it in the extremely small section of the carbon strip rendered hot by the current, and in the perfection of the vacuum in which it was mounted. Edison first exhibited his lamp in his laboratory at Menlo Park, in December, 1879; but before it could be properly utilized an enormous amount of work had to be done. His task was not merely the improvement of an art already existing; it was the creation of a new art. The details of all parts of the system were made more perfect, and in the hands of Edison and others the incandescent lamps, originally of high cost, were much cheapened and the quality of the production was greatly improved.

In spite of the fact that it was well known that a good dynamo when reversed could be made a source of power, few electric motors were in use until a considerable time after the establishment of the first lighting stations. Even in 1884, at the Philadelphia Electrical Exhibition, only a few electric motors were shown.

Twenty years ago an electric motor was a curiosity; fifty years ago crude examples run by batteries were only to be occasionally found in cabinets of scientific apparatus. Machinery Hall, at the Centennial Exhibition of 1876, typified the mill of the past, never again to be reproduced, with its huge engine and lines of heavy shafting and belts conveying power. The wilderness of belts and pulleys is gradually being cleared away, and electric distribution of power substituted.

Moreover, the lighting of the modern mill or factory is done from the same electric plant which distributes power.

The electric motor has already partly revolutionized the distribution of power for stationary machinery, but as applied to railways in place of animal power the revolution is complete. The period which has elapsed since the first introduction of electric railways is barely a dozen years. It is true that a few tentative experiments in electric traction were made some time in advance of 1888, notably by Siemens, in Berlin, in 1879 and 1880, by Stephen D. Field, by T. A. Edison, at Menlo Park, by J. C. Henry, by Charles A. Van Depoele, and others. Farmer, in 1847, tried to propel railway cars by electric motors driven by currents from batteries carried on the cars. These efforts were, of course, doomed to failure, for economical reasons. The plan survives, however, in the electric automobile, best adapted to cities, where facilities for charging and caring for the batteries can be had.

The modern overhead trolley, or under-running trolley, as it is called, seems to have been first invented by Van Depoele, and used by him in practical electric railway work about 1886 and thereafter. The year 1888 may be said to mark the beginning of this work, and in that year Frank J. Sprague put into operation the electric line at Richmond, Va., using the under-running trolley. The Richmond line was the first large undertaking. It had about 13 miles of track, numerous curves, and grades of from 3 to 10 per cent. The Richmond installation, kept in operation as it was in spite of all difficulties, convinced Mr. Henry M. Whitney and the directors of the West End Street Railway, of Boston, of the feasibility of equipping the entire railway system of Boston electrically.

The West End Company, with 200 miles of track in and around Boston, began to equip its lines in 1888 with the Thomson-Houston plant. The success of this great undertaking left no doubt of the future of electric traction. The difficulties which had seriously threatened future success were gradually removed.

The electric railway progress was so great in the United States that about Jan. 1, 1891, there were more than 240 lines in operation. About 30,000 horses and mules were replaced by electric power in the single year of 1891. In 1892 the Thomson-Houston interests and those of the Edison General Electric Company were merged in the General Electric Company, an event of unusual importance, as it brought together the two great competitors in electric traction at that date. Other electric manufacturers, chief among which was the Westinghouse Company, also entered the field and became prominent factors in railway extension. In a few years horse traction in the United States on tramway lines virtually disappeared. While the United States and Canada have been and still are the theatre of the enormous advance in electric traction, as in other electric work, many electric car lines have in recent years been established in Great Britain and on the continent of Europe. Countries like Japan, Australia, South Africa, and South America have also in operation many electric trolley lines, and the work is rapidly extending. Most of this work, even in Europe, has been carried out either by importation of equipment from America, or by apparatus manufactured there, but following American practice closely.

In Chicago the application of motor-cars in trains upon the elevated railway followed directly upon the practical demonstration at the World's Fair of the capabilities of third-rail electric traction on the Intramural Elevated Railway, and the system is rapidly extending so as to include all elevated city roads. A few years will doubtless see the great change accomplished.

The motor-car, or car propelled by its own motors, has also been introduced upon standard steam roads to a limited extent as a supplement to steam traction. The earliest of these installations are the one at Nantasket, Mass., and that between Hartford and New Britain, in Connecticut. A number of special high-speed lines, using similar plans, have gone into operation in recent years.

The three largest and most powerful electric locomotives ever put into service are those which are employed to take trains through the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad tunnel at Baltimore. They have been in service about seven or eight years,

and are fully equal in power to the large steam locomotives used on steam roads. There was opened, in London, in 1900, the Central Underground, equipped with twenty-six electric locomotives for drawing its trains. The electric and power equipment was manufactured in America to suit the needs of the road.

The alternating current transformer not only greatly extended the radius of supply from a single station, but also enabled the station to be conveniently located where water and coal could be had without difficulty. It also permitted the distant water-powers to become sources of electric energy for lighting, power, or for other service. For example, a water-power located at a distance of 50 to 100 miles or more from a city, or from a large manufacturing centre where cost of fuel is high, may be utilized.

A gigantic power-station has lately been established at Niagara. Ten water-wheels, located in an immense wheel-pit about 200 feet deep, each wheel of a capacity of 5,000 horse-power, drive large vertical shafts, at the upper end of which are located the large two-phase dynamos, each of 5,000 horse-power. The electric energy from these machines is in part raised in pressure by huge transformers for transmission to distant points, such as the city of Buffalo, and a large portion is delivered to the numerous manufacturing plants located at moderate distances from the power-station. Besides the supply of energy for lighting, and for motors, including railways, other recent uses of electricity to which we have not yet alluded are splendidly exemplified at Niagara. The arts of electro-plating of metals, such as electro-gilding, silver-plating, nickel-plating, and copper deposition as in electrotyping, are now practised on a very large scale. Moreover, since the introduction of dynamo current, electrolysis has come to be employed in huge plants, not only for separating metals from each other, as in refining them, but in addition for separating them from their ores, for the manufacture of chemical compounds before unknown, and for the cheap production of numerous substances of use in the various arts on a large scale. Vast quantities of copper are refined, and silver and gold often obtained from residues in sufficient amount to pay well for the process.

At Niagara also are works for the production of the metal aluminum from its ores. This metal, which competes in price with brass, bulk for bulk, was only obtainable before its electric reduction at $25 to $30 per pound. The metal sodium is also extracted from soda. A large plant at Niagara also uses the electric current for the manufacture of chlorine for bleach, and caustic soda, both from common salt. Chlorine of potassium is also made at Niagara by electrolysis. The field of electro-chemisty is, indeed, full of great future possibilities. Large furnaces heated by electricity, a single one of which will consume more than 1,000 horse-power, exist at Niagara. In these furnaces is manufactured from coke and sand, by the Acheson process, an abrasive material called carborundum, which is almost as hard as diamond, but quite low in cost. It is made into slabs and into wheels for grinding hard substances. The electric furnace furnishes also the means for producing artificial plumbago, or graphite, almost perfectly pure, the raw material being coke powder.

A large amount of power from Niagara is also consumed for the production in special electric arc furnaces of carbide of calcium from coke and lime. This is the source of acetylene gas, the new illuminant, which is generated when water is brought into contact with the carbide.

While it is not likely that electricity will soon be used for general heating, special instances, such as the warming of electric cars in winter by electric heaters, the operation of cooking appliances by electric current, the heating of sad-irons and the like, give evidence of the possibilities should there ever be found means for the generation of electric energy from fuel with such high efficiency as 80 per cent. or more. Present methods give, under most favorable conditions, barely 10 per cent., 90 per cent. of the energy value of the fuel being unavoidably wasted.

The electric current is used for welding together the joints of steel car-rails, for welding teeth in saws, for making many parts of bicycles, and in tool making. An instance of its peculiar adaptability to

unusual conditions is the welding of the iron bands embedded within the body of a rubber vehicle tire for holding the tire in place. For this purpose the electric weld has been found almost essential.

Another branch of electric development concerns the storage of electricity. The storage battery is based upon principles discovered by Gaston Planté, and applied, since 1881, by Brush, by Faure, and others. Some of the larger lighting stations employ as reservoirs of electric energy large batteries charged by surplus dynamo current. This is afterwards drawn upon when the consumer's load is heavy, as during the evening. The storage battery is, however, a heavy, cumbrous apparatus, of limited life, easily destroyed unless guarded with skill. If a form not possessing these faults be ever found, the field of possible application is almost limitless.

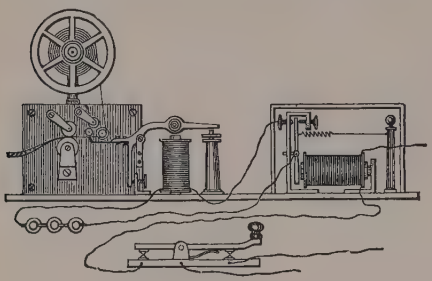
The wonderful X-rays, and the rich scientific harvest which has followed the discovery by Röntgen of invisible radiation from a vacuum tube, was preceded by much investigation of the effects of electric discharges in vacuum tubes, and Hittorf, followed by Crookes, has given special study to these effects in very high or nearly perfect vacua. It was as late as 1896 that Röntgen announced his discovery. Since that time several other sources of invisible radiation have been discovered, more or less similar in effect to the radiations from a vacuum tube, but emitted, singular as the fact is, from rare substances extracted from certain minerals. Leaving out of consideration the great value of the X-ray to physicians and surgeons, its effect in stimulating scientific inquiry has almost been incalculable. It is as unlikely that the mystery of the material universe will ever be completely solved as it is that we can gain an adequate conception of infinite space or time. But we can at least extend the range of our mental vision of the processes of nature as we do our real vision into space depths by the telescope and spectroscope.

The nineteenth century closed with many important problems in electrical science unsolved. What great or far-reaching discoveries are yet in store, who can tell? What valuable practical developments are to come, who can predict? The electrical progress has been great—very great—but after all only a part of that grander advance in so many other fields. Man still spends his best effort, and has always done so, in the construction and equipment of his engines of destruction, and now exhausts the mines of the world of valuable metals, for ships of war, whose ultimate goal is the bottom of the sea. Perhaps all this is necessary now, and, if so, well. But if a fraction of the vast expenditure entailed were turned to the encouragement of advance in the arts and employments of peace, can it be doubted that, at the close of the twentieth century, the nineteenth century might come to be regarded, in spite of its achievements, as a rather wasteful, semi-barbarous transition period?

Electrocution. The popular name of a method of inflicting capital punishment by electricity as ordered by the legislature of New York in 1888 and amended in 1892. New York was the first State in the country where this method of capital punishment was sanctioned. The first person executed by the new method was William Kemmler, a convicted murderer, on whom the death sentence was thus carried out in Auburn Prison, Aug. 6, 1890. The apparatus used in the execution, as officially described, consisted of a stationary engine, alternating-current dynamo and exciter, a voltmeter with extra resistance coil, calibrated from a range of from 30 to 2,000 volts, an ammeter for alternating currents from 0.10 to 3 amperes, a Wheatstone-bridge rheostat, bell signals, and a number of switches. The death-chair had an adjustable head-rest, binding-straps, and two adjustable electrodes, one of which was placed on the top of the head and the other at the lower part of the spine. The execution room contained only the death-chair, the electrodes, and the wires attached to them, the remainder of the equipment being in the adjoining room. At the end of seventeen seconds after the contact was made the victim was pronounced dead. The current strength was believed to have been at least 1,500 volts, although there was no official record kept of many details, but in later executions the electromotive pressure varied from 458 to 716 volts, while

the ammeter has shown a variation in current of from 2 to 7 amperes. After the first execution there was rather a widespread protest against this method of carrying out capital punishment, and the constitutionality of the legislative act was affirmed by the Supreme Court of the United States. See CAPITAL PUNISHMENT.

Electro-magnetic Telegraph. This invention, conceived more than a century ago, was first brought to perfection as an intelligent medium of communication be-

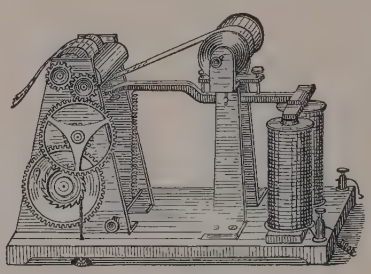


MORSE APPARATUS, CIRCUIT AND BATTERY.

tween points distant from each other by PROF. SAMUEL F. B. MORSE (*q. v.*), of New York, and was first presented to public notice in 1838. In the autumn of 1837 he filed a caveat at the Patent Office; and he gave a private exhibition of its marvellous power in the New York University in January, 1838, when intelligence was instantly transmitted by an alphabet composed of dots and lines, invented by Morse, through a circuit of 10 miles of wire, and plainly recorded. Morse applied to Congress for pecuniary aid to enable him to construct an experimental line between Washington and Baltimore. For four years he waited, for the action of the government was tardy, in consequence of doubt and positive opposition. At the beginning of March, 1842, Congress

MORSE KEY.

appropriated $30,000 for his use; and in May, 1844, he transmitted from Washington to Baltimore, a distance of 40 miles, the first message, furnished him by a young lady—"What hath God wrought!" The first public message was the announcement of the nomination by the Democratic National Convention in Baltimore (May, 1844) of James K. Polk for President of the United States. Professor Morse also originated submarine telegraphy. He publicly suggested its feasibility in a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury in 1843. As early as 1842 he laid a submarine cable, or insulated wire, in the harbor of New York, for which achievement the American Institute awarded him a small gold medal. In 1858 he participated in the labors and honors of laying a cable under the sea between Europe and America. (See ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH). Monarchs gave him medals and orders. Yale College conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL.D., and in 1858, at the instance of the Emperor of the French, several European governments combined in the act of giving Professor Morse the sum of $80,000 in gold as a token of their appreciation. Vast improvements have been made since in the transmission of messages. For more than a quarter of a century the messages were each sent over a single wire, only one way



MORSE REGISTER.

at a time. Early in 1871, through the inventions of Edison and others, messages were sent both ways over the same wire at the same instant of time. Very soon four messages were sent the same way. Now multiplex transmission is a matter of every-day business. See VAIL, A. H.

Eliot, ANDREW, clergyman; born in Boston, Mass., Dec. 28, 1718; graduated at Harvard College in 1737; ordained associate pastor of the New North Church in Boston, where he was sole pastor after 1750. When the British occupied

Boston he did much to ameliorate the condition of the people. He also saved valuable manuscripts, among them the second volume of the *History of Massachusetts Bay*, when the house of Governor Hutchinson was invested by a mob. He died in Boston, Mass., Sept. 13, 1778.

Eliot, CHARLES WILLIAM, educator; born in Boston, Mass., March 20, 1834; graduated at Harvard University in 1853; was a tutor in mathematics at Harvard and a student in chemistry with Prof. Josiah P. Cooke, 1854–58; served as Assistant Professor of Mathematics and Chemistry, Lawrence Scientific School, Harvard, in 1858–63; when he went abroad, studied chemistry and investigated European educational methods. In 1865–69 he was Professor of Analytical Chemistry, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and in 1869 became president of

CHARLES WILLIAM ELIOT.

Harvard University, retiring in 1909. He is a Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, the American Philosophical Society, etc. He has given many noteworthy addresses on educational and scientific subjects. He is the author of *Manual of Qualitative Chemical Analysis* (with Prof. Francis H. Storer); *Manual of Inorganic Chemistry* (with the same); *Five American Contributions to Civilization, and other Essays; Educational Reform*, etc.

Eliot, JARED, educator and clergyman; born in Guilford, Conn., Nov. 7, 1685; son of Joseph and grandson of John Eliot; graduated at Yale College in 1706, and from 1709 until his death he was minister of the first church at Killingworth, Conn. He was a most practical and useful man, and did much for the advancement of agriculture and manufactures in New England. He strongly urged in essays the introduction into the colonies of a better breed of sheep. In 1747 he wrote: "A better breed of sheep is what we want. The English breed of Cotswold sheep cannot be obtained, or at least not without great difficulty; for wool and live sheep are contraband goods, which all strangers are prohibited from carrying out on pain of having the right hand cut off." In 1761 the London Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce honored him with its medal, for producing malleable iron from American black sand, and he was made a member of the Royal Society of London. He was the first to introduce the white mulberry into Connecticut, and with it silk-worms, and published a treatise on silk-culture. Mr. Eliot was also an able physician, and was particularly successful in the treatment of insanity and chronic complaints. He died in Killingworth, Conn., April 22, 1763.

Eliot, JOHN, the Apostle to the Indians; born either in Nasing, Essex, or Widford, Hertfordshire, England, presumably in 1604, as he was baptized in Widford, Aug. 5, 1604. Educated at Cambridge, he removed to Boston in 1631, and the next year was appointed minister at Roxbury. Seized with a passionate longing for the conversion of the Indians and for improving their condition, he commenced his labors among the twenty tribes within the English domain in Massachusetts in October, 1646. He acquired their language through an Indian servant in his family, made a grammar of it, and translated the Bible into the Indian tongue. It is claimed that Eliot was the first Protestant minister who preached to the Indians in their native tongue. An Indian town called Natick was erected on the Charles River for the "praying Indians" in 1657, and the first Indian church was established there in 1660. During King

JOHN ELIOT.

Philip's War Eliot's efforts in behalf of the praying Indians saved them from destruction by the white people. He travelled extensively, visited many tribes, planted several churches, and once preached before King Philip, who treated him with disdain. He persuaded many to adopt the customs of civilized life, and lived to see twenty-four of them become preachers of the Gospel to their own tribes. His influence among the Indians was unbounded, and his generosity in helping the sick and afflicted among them was unsparing. Cotton Mather affirmed, "We had a tradition that the country could never perish as long as Eliot was alive." He published many small works on religious subjects, several of which were in the Indian language. His greatest work was the translation of the Bible into the Indian language (1661–66), and was the first Bible ever printed in America. It is much sought after by collectors. The language in which it was written has perished. He died in Roxbury, Mass., May 20, 1690.

The Brief Narrative.—This was the last of Eliot's publications relating to the progress of Christianity among the American Indians. Its full title was:

"A Brief Narrative of the Progress of the Gospel amongst the *Indians* in *New England*, in the Year 1670, given in by the Reverend Mr. John Elliot, Minister of the Gospel there, in a Letter by him directed to the Right Worshipfull the Commissioners under his Majesties Great-Seal for Propagation of the Gospel amongst the poor blind Natives in

JOHN ELIOT PREACHING TO THE INDIANS.

those United Colonies. *LONDON,* Printed for *John Allen,* formerly living in *Little-Britain* at the Rising-Sun, and now in *Wentworth Street* near *Bel-Lane,* 1671."

Eliot, JOHN, clergyman; born in Boston, Mass., May 31, 1754; son of Andrew Eliot; graduated at Harvard College in 1772; succeeded his father as minister of the New North Church in November, 1779; was one of the founders of the Massachusetts Historical Society. He published a *Biographical Dictionary of Eminent Characters in New England.* He died in Boston, Mass., Feb. 14, 1813.

Eliot, SAMUEL, historian; born in Boston, Mass., Dec. 22, 1821; graduated at Harvard College in 1839; professor of History and Political Science in Trinity College in 1856–64. His publications include *History of Liberty* (in five parts); a *Manual of United States History between the Years 1792 and 1850;* and *Passages from the History of Liberty.* He died in Beverly, Mass., Sept. 14, 1898.

Elizabeth, N. J. See ELIZABETHTOWN CLAIMANTS.

Elizabeth, QUEEN OF ENGLAND; born in Greenwich, Sept. 7, 1533; daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. Under the tuition of Roger Ascham she acquired much proficiency in classical learning, and before she was seventeen years of age she was mistress of the Latin, French, and Italian languages, and had read several works in Greek. By education she was attached to the Protestant Church, and was persecuted by her half-sister, Mary, who was a Roman Catholic. Elizabeth never married. When quite young her father negotiated for her nuptials with the son of Francis I. of France, but it failed. She flirted awhile with the ambitious Lord Seymour. In 1558 she declined an offer of marriage from Eric, King of Sweden, and also from Philip of Spain. Her sister Mary died Nov. 17, 1558, when Elizabeth was proclaimed Queen of England. With caution she proceeded to restore the Protestant religion to ascendency in her kingdom. Her reform began by ordering a large part of the church service to be read in English, and forbade the elevation of the host in her presence. Of the Roman Catholic bishops, only one consented to officiate at her coronation. In 1559 Parliament passed a bill which vested in the crown the supremacy claimed by the pope; the mass was abolished, and the liturgy of Edward VI. restored. In one session the whole system of religion in England was altered by the will of a single young woman. When Francis II. of France assumed the arms and title of King of England in right of his wife, Mary Stuart, Elizabeth sent an army to Scotland which drove the French out of the kingdom. She supported the French Huguenots with money and troops in their struggle with the Roman Catholics in 1562. In 1563 the Parliament, in an address to the Queen, entreated her to choose a husband, so as to secure a Protestant succession to the crown. She returned an evasive answer. She gave encouragement to several suitors, after she rejected Philip, among them Archduke Charles of Austria, the Duke of Anjou, and Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester. The latter remained her favorite until his death in 1588. During the greater part of Elizabeth's reign, Cecil, Lord Burleigh, was her prime minister. For more than twenty years from 1564 England was at peace with foreign nations, and enjoyed great prosperity. Because of the opposite interests in religion, and possibly because of matrimonial affairs, Elizabeth and Philip of Spain were mutually hostile, and in 1588 the latter sent the "invincible Armada" for the invasion of England. It consisted of over 130 vessels and 30,000 men. It was defeated and dispersed (Aug. 8), and in a gale more than fifty of the Spanish ships were wrecked. On the death of Leicester the Queen showed decided partiality for the Earl of Essex. Her treatment and final consent to the execution, by beheading, of Mary, Queen of Scots, has left a stain on the memory of Elizabeth. She assisted the Protestant Henry IV. of France in his struggle with the French Roman Catholics, whom Philip of Spain subsidized. Her reign was vigorous, and is regarded as exceedingly beneficial to the British nation. Literature was fostered, and it was illustrated during her reign by such men as Spenser, Shakespeare, Sidney, Bacon, and Raleigh. Elizabeth was possessed of eminent ability and courage, but her personal character was deformed by selfishness, inconstancy, deceit, heartlessness, and other un-

QUEEN ELIZABETH.

womanly faults. She signified her will on her death-bed that James VI. of Scotland, son of the beheaded Mary, should be her successor, and he was accordingly crowned as such. She died March 24, 1603.

Elizabethtown Claimants. For more than a century the dispute between the first settlers at Elizabethtown, N. J. (who came from Long Island and New England), and, first, the proprietors of New Jersey, and, next, the crown, arose and continued concerning the title to the lands on which these settlers were seated. The dispute occurred in consequence of conflicting claims to eminent domain, caused by a dispute about the original title of the soil. The Elizabethtown settlers obtained their land from the Indians, with the consent of Governor Nicolls; but already the Duke of York, without the knowledge of Nicolls or the settlers, had sold the domain of New Jersey to Berkeley and Carteret. The new proprietors ignored the title of the settlers, and made demands as absolute proprietors of the soil, which the latter continually resisted themselves, and so did their heirs. Frequent unsuccessful attempts at ejectment were made; the settlers resisted by force. The Assembly, called upon to interfere, usually declined, for that body rather favored the Elizabethtown claimants. Finally, in 1757, Governor Belcher procured an

act of assembly by which all past differences should be buried. It was not acceptable; and in 1751 the British government ordered a commission of inquiry to determine the law and equity in the case. The proprietors also began chancery suits against the heirs of the Elizabethtown settlers, and these were pending when the Revolution broke out (1775) and settled the whole matter.

Elizabethtown, or Elizabeth, as the place is now called, was settled in 1665; was the colonial capital from 1755 to 1757, and the State capital till 1790, when Trenton became the seat of government; and became a city in 1865. It contains an old tavern where Washington stopped on his way to New York for his first inauguration, Gen. Winfield Scott's home, the Boudinot House, and the old Livingston Mansion. The College of New Jersey, now Princeton University, chartered in 1746, was opened here in May, 1747.

Elizabethtown Expedition, a military movement in the War of 1812–15, in which an American force under Major Forsyth captured Elizabethtown (near Brockville), Canada, Feb. 7, 1813, released the American prisoners, seized some of the garrison and a quantity of stores, and returned to the United States without the loss of a man.

Elk Creek, or HONEY SPRINGS, a locality in old Indian Territory, where, on July 17, 1863, Gen. James G. Blunt, with a force of Kansas cavalry, artillery, and Indian home guards, defeated a Confederate force under Gen. S. H. Cooper, the latter losing nearly 500 in killed and wounded.

Elkhorn, BATTLE OF. See PEA RIDGE.

Elkins, STEPHEN BENTON, legislator; born in Perry county, Ohio, Sept. 26, 1841; graduated at the Missouri University in 1860; admitted to the bar in 1863; captain in the 77th Missouri Regiment 1862–63; removed to New Mexico in 1864, where he engaged in mining; elected member of the Territorial legislature in 1864; attorney-general of the Territory in 1868; U. S. district-attorney in 1870; member of Congress in 1873–77; Secretary of War in 1891–94; and U. S. Senator from West Virginia from 1895 till his death in Washington, D. C., Jan. 5, 1911.

Elkswatawa, Indian, known as the Prophet; brother of the famous Tecumseh; born in Piqua, the seat of the Piqua clan of the Shawnees, about 4 miles north of Springfield, O., early in 1775. He was a shrewd deceiver of his people by means of pretended visions and powers of divination. By harangues he excited the superstition of the Indians; and such became his fame as a "medicine-man," or prophet, that large numbers of men, women, and children of the forest came long

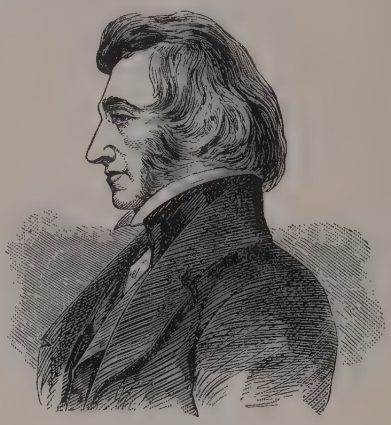
ELKSWATAWA, THE PROPHET.

distances to see this oracle of the Great Spirit, who they believed could work miracles. His features were ugly. He had lost one eye in his youth, and, owing to dissipation, he appeared much older than his brother Tecumseh. The latter was really an able man, and used this brother as his tool. The Prophet lost the confidence of his people by the events of the battle of Tippecanoe. On the evening before the battle the demagogue prepared for treachery and murder. He brought out a magic bowl, a sacred torch, a string of holy beans, and his followers were all required to touch these talismans and be made invulnerable, and then to take an oath to exterminate the pale-faces. When this was accomplished the Prophet went through a

long series of incantations and mystical movements; then, turning to his highly excited band—about 700 in number—he told them that the time to attack the white men had come. "They are in your power," he said, holding up the holy beans as a reminder of their oath. "They sleep now, and will never awake. The Great Spirit will give light to us and darkness to the white men. Their bullets shall not harm us; your weapons shall be always fatal." Then followed war songs and dances, until the Indians, wrought up to a perfect frenzy, rushed forth to attack Harrison's camp, without any leaders. Stealthily they crept through the long grass of the prairie in the deep gloom, intending to surround their enemy's position, kill the sentinels, rush into the camp, and massacre all. The result of the battle of TIPPECANOE (*q. v.*) caused the Indians to doubt his inspiration by the Great Spirit. They covered him with reproaches, when he cunningly told them that his predictions concerning the battle had failed because his wife had touched the sacred vessels and broken the charm. Even Indian superstition and credulity could not accept that transparent falsehood for an excuse, and the Prophet was deserted by his disappointed followers and compelled to seek refuge among the Wyandottes.

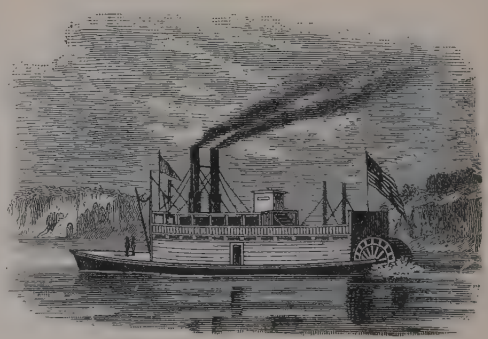
Ellery, WILLIAM, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Newport, R. I., Dec. 22, 1727; graduated at Harvard in 1747; became a merchant in Newport; and was naval officer of Rhode Island in 1770. He afterwards studied and practised law at Newport, and gained a high reputation. An active patriot, he was a member of Congress from 1776 to 1785, excepting two years, and was very useful in matters pertaining to finance and diplomacy. He was especially serviceable as a member of the marine committee, and of the board of admiralty. During the occupation of Rhode Island by the British he suffered great loss of property, but bore it with quiet cheerfulness as a sacrifice for the public good. He was chief-justice of the Superior Court of Rhode Island, and in 1790 collector of the revenue at Newport. Mr. Ellery was a strenuous advocate of the abolition of slavery. He died in Newport, Feb. 15, 1820.

Ellet, CHARLES, engineer; born in Penn's Manor, Bucks co., Pa., Jan. 1,



CHARLES ELLET.

1810; planned and built the first wire suspension bridge in the United States, across the Schuylkill at Fairmount; and planned and constructed the first suspension bridge over the Niagara River below the Falls, and other notable bridges. When the Civil War broke out he turned his attention to the construction of steam "rams" for the Western



ELLET'S STERN-WHEEL RAM.

rivers, and a plan proposed by him to the Secretary of War (Mr. Stanton) was adopted, and he soon converted ten or

twelve powerful steamers on the Mississippi into "rams," with which he rendered great assistance in the capture of Memphis. In the battle there he was struck by a musket-ball in the knee, from the effects of which he died, in Cairo, Ill., June 21, 1862. Mr. Ellet proposed to General McClellan a plan for cutting off the Confederate army at Manassas, which the latter rejected, and the engineer wrote and published severe strictures on McClellan's mode of conducting the war.

Ellet, ELIZABETH FRIES, author; born in Sodus Point, N. Y., in 1818; was author of *Domestic History of the American Revolution; Women of the American Revolution; Pioneer Women of the West;* and *Queens of American Society.* She died June 3, 1877.

Ellicott, ANDREW, civil engineer; born in Bucks county, Pa., Jan. 24, 1754. His father and uncle founded the town of Ellicott's Mills (now Ellicott City), Md., in 1790. Andrew was much engaged in public surveying for many years after settling in Baltimore in 1785. In 1789 he made the first accurate measurement of Niagara River from lake to lake, and in 1790 he was employed by the United States government in laying out the city of Washington. In 1792 he was made surveyor-general of the United States, and in 1796 he was a commissioner to determine the southern boundary between the territory of the United States and Spain, in accordance with a treaty. From Sept. 1, 1813, until his death, Aug. 29, 1820, he was professor of mathematics and civil engineering at West Point.

Elliott, CHARLES, clergyman; born in Greenconway, Ireland, May 16, 1792; became a member of the Wesleyan Church; came to the United States about 1815; joined the Ohio Methodist conference in 1818. He was the author of *History of the Great Secession from the Methodist Episcopal Church; Southwestern Methodism;* two publications against slavery, etc. He died in Mount Pleasant, Ia., Jan. 6, 1869.

Elliott, CHARLES LORING, painter; born in Scipio, N. Y., in December, 1812; was the son of an architect, who prepared him for that profession. He became a pupil of Trumbull, in New York, and afterwards of Quidor, a painter of fancy-pieces. Having acquired the technicalities of the art, his chief employment for a time was copying engravings in oil, and afterwards he attempted portraits. He practised portrait-painting in the interior of New York for about ten years, when he went to the city (1845), where he soon rose to the head of his profession as a portrait-painter. It is said that he painted 700 portraits, many of them of distinguished men. His likenesses were always remarkable for fidelity, and for beauty and vigor of coloring. He died in Albany, Aug. 25, 1868.

Elliott, CHARLES WYLLYS, author; born in Guilford, Conn., May 27, 1817. His publications relating to the United States include *New England History, from the Discovery of the Continent by the Northmen, A. D. 968, to 1776;* and *The Book of American Interiors, prepared from existing Houses.* He died Aug. 23, 1883.

Elliott, JESSE DUNCAN, naval officer; born in Maryland, July 14, 1782; entered the United States navy as midshipman in

JESSE DUNCAN ELLIOTT.

April, 1804; and rose to master, July 24, 1813. He was with Barron in the Tripolitan War, and served on the Lakes with Chauncey and Perry in the War of 1812–15. He captured two British vessels, *Detroit* and *Caledonia,* at Fort Erie, for which exploit he was presented by Congress with a sword. He was in command of the *Niagara* in Perry's famous combat on Lake Erie, to which the Commodore

THE ELLIOTT MEDAL.

went from the *Lawrence* during the action. He succeeded Perry in command on Lake Erie in October, 1813. Elliott was with Decatur in the Mediterranean in 1815, and was promoted to captain in March, 1818. He commanded the West India squadron (1829–32); took charge of the navy-yard at Charleston in 1833; and afterwards cruised several years in the Mediterranean. On his return he was court-martialled, and suspended from command for four years. A part of the sentence was remitted, and in 1844 he was appointed to the command of the navy-yard at Philadelphia. For the part which Elliott took in the battle of Lake Erie Congress awarded him the thanks of the nation and a gold medal. He died in Philadelphia, Dec. 10, 1845.

Elliott, JONATHAN, author; born in Carlisle, England, in 1784; emigrated to New York in 1802; served in the United States army in the War of 1812. Among his writings are *American Diplomatic Code; Debate on the Adoption of the Constitution; The Comparative Tariffs,* etc. He died in Washington, D. C., March 12, 1846.

Elliott, SUSANNAH, heroine; born in South Carolina about 1750; made for Colonel Moultrie's regiment two standards, which she embroidered; and assisted several American officers in escaping by concealing them in a hidden room in her house.

Ellis, GEORGE EDWARD, clergyman; born in Boston, Mass., Aug. 8, 1814; graduated at Harvard in 1833; ordained a Unitarian pastor in 1840; president of the Massachusetts Historical Society, and author of *History of the Battle of Bunker Hill,* and biographies of John Mason, William Penn, Anne Hutchinson, Jared Sparks, Count Rumford, etc. He died in Boston, Mass., Dec. 20, 1894.

Ellis, HENRY, colonial governor; born in England in 1721; studied law; appointed lieutenant-governor of Georgia, Aug. 15, 1756; became royal governor, May 17, 1758. He proved himself a wise administrator, and succeeded in establishing good-will between the colonists and the Creeks. The climate proving bad for his health, he returned to England in November, 1760. He was author of *Heat of the Weather in Georgia,* etc. He died Jan. 21, 1806.

Ellis, JOHN WILLIS, governor; born in Rowan county, N. C., Nov. 25, 1820; graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1841, and admitted to the bar in 1842. He was governor of North Carolina in 1858–61. In the name of his State he occupied Fort Macon, the works at Wilmington, and the United States arsenal at Fayetteville, Jan. 2, 1861. In April of the same year he ordered the seizure of the United States mint at Charlotte. He died in Raleigh, N. C., in 1861.

Ellis, SETH H., politician; was candidate of the Union Reform party for President in 1900, with Samuel T. Nicholas of Pennsylvania, for Vice-President. He died June 23, 1904.

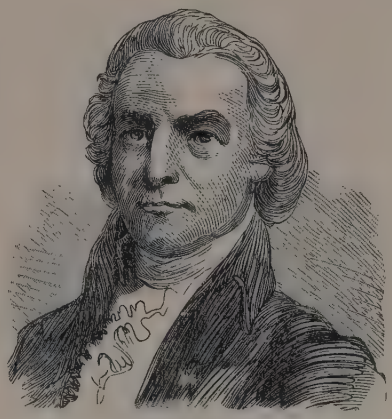
Ellison's Mill. See MECHANICSVILLE, BATTLE OF.

Ellmaker, AMOS, jurist; born in New Holland, Pa., Feb. 2, 1787; admitted to the bar in 1808; elected to the State legislature in 1812; appointed district judge in 1815; attorney-general of the State in 1816; was candidate for Vice-President on the Anti-Masonic ticket in 1832. He died in Lancaster, Pa., Nov. 28, 1851.

Ellsworth, EPHRAIM ELMER, military officer; born in Mechanicsville, N. Y., April 23, 1837; was first engaged in mercantile business in Troy, N. Y., and as a patent solicitor in Chicago he acquired a good income. While studying law he joined a Zouave corps at Chicago, and in July, 1860, visited some of the Eastern cities of the Union with them and attracted great attention. On his return he organized a Zouave regiment in Chicago; and in April, 1861, he organized another from the New York Fire Department. These were among the earlier troops that hastened to Washington. Leading his Zouaves to Alexandria, Ellsworth was shot dead by the proprietor of the Marshall House, while he was descending the stairs with a Confederate flag which he had pulled down, May 24, 1861. His body was taken to Washington, and lay in state in the East Room of the White House. It was then taken to New York, where it lay in state in the City Hall, and, after being carried in procession through the streets of the city, it was conveyed to his birthplace for burial. He was young and handsome, and his death, being the first of note that had occurred in the opening war, produced a profound sensation throughout the country.

EPHRAIM ELMER ELLSWORTH.

Ellsworth, OLIVER, LL.D., jurist; born in Windsor, Conn., April 29, 1745;



OLIVER ELLSWORTH.

graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1766; was admitted to the bar in 1771; practised in Hartford, Conn.; and was made State attorney. When the Revolutionary War was kindling he took the side of the patriots in the legislature of Connecticut, and was a delegate in Congress from 1777 to 1780. He became a member of the State council, and in 1784 was appointed a judge of the Supreme Court. Judge Ellsworth was one of the framers of the national Constitution, but, being called away before the adjournment of the convention, his name was not attached to that instrument. He was the first United States Senator from Connecticut (1789–95), and drew up the bill for organizing the Judiciary Department. In 1796 he was made chief-justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, and at the close of 1799 he was one of the envoys to France. He died in Windsor, Nov. 26, 1807.

Elmira, BATTLE OF. See SULLIVAN, JOHN.

El Molino del Rey, CAPTURE OF. Almost within cannon-shot distance of the city of Mexico is Chapultepec, a hill composed of porphyritic rock, and known in the Aztec language as "Grasshoppers' Hill." It rises from the ancient shore of Lake Tezcuco, and was the favorite resort of the Aztec princes. It was also the site of the palace and gardens of Montezuma. That hill was crowned with a strong castle and military college, supported by numerous outworks, which, with the steepness of the ascent to it, seemed to make it impregnable. Only the slope towards the city was easily ascended, and that was covered with a thick forest. At the foot of the hill was a stone building, with thick high walls, and towers at the end, known as El

BATTLE OF EL MOLINO DEL REY.

Molino del Rey—"The King's Mill." About 400 yards from this was another massive stone building, known as Casa de Mata. The former was used (1847) as a cannon foundry by the Mexicans, and the latter was a depository of gunpowder. Both were armed and strongly garrisoned. General Scott, at Tacubaya, ascertained that Santa Ana, while negotiations for peace were going on, had sent church-bells out of the city to be cast into cannon, and he determined to seize both of these strong buildings and deprive the Mexicans of those sources of strength. He proposed to first attack El Molino del Rey, which was commanded by General Leon. The Mexican forces at these defences were about 14,000 strong, their left wing resting on El Molino del Rey, their centre forming a connecting line with Casa de Mata and supported by a field-battery, and their right wing resting on the latter. To the division of General Worth was intrusted the task of assailing the works before them. At three o'clock on the morning of Sept. 8 (1847) the assaulting columns moved to the attack, Garland's brigade forming the right wing. The battle began at dawn by Huger's 24-pounder opening on El Molino del Rey, when Major Wright, of the 8th Infantry, fell upon the centre with 500 picked men. On the left was the 2d Brigade, commanded by Colonel McIntosh, supported by Duncan's battery. The assault of Major Wright on the centre drove back infantry and artillery, and the Mexican field-battery was captured. The Mexicans soon rallied and regained their position, and a terrible struggle ensued. El Molino del Rey was soon assailed and carried by Garland's brigade, and at the same time the battle around Casa de Mata was raging fiercely. For a moment the Americans reeled, but soon recovered, when a large column of Mexicans were seen filing around the right of their intrenchments to fall upon the Americans, who had been driven back, when Duncan's battery opened upon them so destructively that the Mexican column was scattered in confusion. Then Sumner's dragoons charged upon them, and their rout was complete. The slaughter had been dreadful. Nearly one-fourth of Worth's corps were either killed or wounded. The Mexicans had left 1,000 dead on the field. Their best leaders had been slain, and 800 men had been made prisoners. The strong buildings were blown up, and none of the defences of Mexico outside its gates remained to them, excepting the castle of CHAPULTEPEC (*q. v.*) and its supports.

El Paso, city, port of entry, capital of El Paso county, and one of the most important cities of Texas; on the Rio Grande, opposite Ciudad Juarez, the northern terminus of the Mexican Central Railroad in Mexico, and near El Paso del Norte, the principal mountain pass between Old and New Mexico. It is in a gold, silver, lead, and iron mining region; has large smelting works and varied manufactures; and had a commerce with Mexico in 1910 represented by $4,655,097 in imports of merchandise, and $8,210,208 in exports. In 1911 it was one of the points of rendezvous of the American army mobilized along the Rio Grande during the revolution in Mexico, and during the attack on and capture of Juarez by the revolutionists, May 8–10, several citizens of El Paso were killed and about a dozen wounded by bullets from the Mexican side of the river.

Back about 1827 the channel of the Rio Grande ran about on the level of First Street and just south of the court-house in El Paso. At the present time it runs about a mile and a half south of the line. In 1827, while Texas was under Mexican control, the Mexican government made a grant of about two hundred and ten acres of land on the north side of the Rio Grande as it then stood to Juan Ponce de Leon, and in 1858 Texas ratified the grant.

The Rio Grande moved south in 1865, but there was no dispute over the intervening land until 1882, when the railroad reached El Paso. Then those who had purchased from De Leon claimed the new land south to the river, while American squatters and former Mexican owners also laid claim to the land. The result has been that for nearly thirty years land titles in the southern part of El Paso have been in a state of doubt and uncertainty leading to constant disputes.

In 1911 the International Court of Arbitration rendered a decision dividing the strip of land in dispute between the United

States and Mexico, thus declaring a part of El Paso to be Mexican soil.

On November 2, 1911, the Mexican Congress declared Francisco I. Madero, Jr., and Dr. Piño Suarez presidents of the republic for the unexpired period of the Diaz term. The agitation through Mexico, under the leadership of Madero, which led to the resignation of President Diaz, took a new form of opposition to Madero, the chief conspirators being Zapata and "The Cientificos," a party which had always upheld the Diaz administration. El Paso became the centre of operation by the revolutionists, and the United States gave notice that it would not tolerate conspiracies on American soil against a friendly government, and despatched a considerable body of soldiers to El Paso and vicinity, to enforce the laws of the United States. Pop. (1900), 15,906; (1910) 39,279.

Elson, Louis Charles, musician; born in Boston, Mass., April 17, 1848; studied music in Germany; musical editor Boston *Daily Advertiser* from 1888, and connected with the New England Conservatory since 1880. Among his works are *Our National Music and its Source; History of American Music; Dictionary of Music,* etc.

Ellwell, Frank Edwin, sculptor; born in Concord, Mass., June 15, 1858; studied in Paris, 1881–85; returned to America in 1885; connected with the National Academy of Design and the New York Art League. Among his works are the equestrian statue of *Gen. Hancock at Gettysburg;* bust of *Vice-President Levi P. Morton,* in the United States Senate Chamber; *Edwin Booth Memorial,* Cambridge.

Elwyn, Alfred William Langdon, philanthropist; born in Portsmouth, N. H., July 9, 1804; graduated at Harvard College in 1823; studied medicine, but never practised; became known as a philanthropist. He originated the Pennsylvania Agricultural Society and Farm-school, of which he was president in 1850; was also president of various philanthropic institutions. He was the author of *Glossary of Supposed Americanisms;* and *Letters to the Hon. John Langdon, during and after the Revolution.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., March 15, 1884.

Ely, Alfred, lawyer; born in Lyme, Conn., Feb. 18, 1815; settled in Rochester, N. Y., in 1835; admitted to the bar in 1841; member of Congress in 1859–63. He was taken prisoner by the Confederates in July, 1861, and confined in Libby prison for six months; was then exchanged for Charles J. Faulkner, the minister to France, who had been arrested for disloyalty. While in Libby prison he kept a journal, which was later published as the *Journal of Alfred Ely, a Prisoner of War in Richmond.* He died in Rochester, N. Y., May 18, 1892.

Ely, John, physician; born in Lyme, Conn., 1737; recruited a company of militia in 1775, with which he marched to Roxbury, Mass.; commandant of Ft. Trumbull with the rank of colonel, 1777; captured by the British, Dec. 9, 1777. He refused to accept his parole, but devoted himself to the care of the American officers who were prisoners of war at Flatbush, L. I. He served as a physician, refusing to be exchanged, for over three years. He died in Lyme, Conn., October, 1800.

Ely, Richard Theodore, political economist; born in Ripley, N. Y., April 13, 1854; graduated at Columbia University in 1876; professor of political economy in the University of Wisconsin from 1892; founder of the American Bureau of Industrial Research and of the American Economic Association; first president of the American Association for Labor Legislation. Among his works are *French and German Socialism; Taxation in American States; Socialism and Social Reform; The Social Law of Service; The Labor Movement in America; Problems of Today; Studies in the Evolution of Industrial Society;* editor of *Citizens' Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology.*

Ely, Smith; born in Hanover, N. J., April 17, 1825; graduated at University of New York; member of Congress 1871–76; Mayor of New York City, 1877–78. He died in Livingston, N. J., July 1, 1911.

Ely, William G., military officer; born about 1835; joined the National army on the first call for volunteers. On June 13, 1863, he was captured in the engagement at Fort Royal Pike. After spending eight months in Libby prison he endeavored to make his escape, with 108 others, through the famous underground passage dug beneath Twentieth Street. Four days later fifty of the number, in-

cluding Colonel Ely, were retaken. He was, however, soon afterwards exchanged, and led his regiment, on June 4, 1864, at the battle of Piedmont; received the brevet of brigadier-general in the same year. He died in Norwich, Conn., Nov. 13, 1906.

Elzey, ARNOLD, military officer; born in Somerset county, Md., Dec. 18, 1816; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1837; served with distinction through the Florida and Mexican wars. When the Civil War broke out he resigned from the National army and entered that of the Confederates; was promoted on the field to the rank of brigadier-general by Jefferson Davis for gallant service, and later attained to that of major-general. He died in Baltimore, Md., Feb. 21, 1871.

Emancipation Proclamations. For many years there has been a fiction that Gen. Benjamin F. Butler issued the first proclamation freeing the slaves. That officer never issued such a proclamation, but he was the first to suggest to the government a partial solution of the very perplexing question as to what was to be done with the slaves during the Civil War. It was held that the Constitution of the United States did not give to Congress, or to the non-slave-holding States, any right to intertere with the institution of slavery. This was reaffirmed by Congress in a resolution passed by the House, Feb. 11, 1861, without a dissenting voice, to reassure the South that, in spite of the election of Mr. Lincoln, the North had no intention of usurping power not granted by the Constitution. But when, after the outbreak of the war, the army began to occupy posts in the seceding and slave-holding States, the negroes came flocking into the Union lines, large numbers being set free by the disorganized condition of affairs from the usual labor on the farms and plantations of the South. Then the question arose, What can be done with them? General Butler, when they came into his camp at Fort Monroe, detained them and refused to surrender them upon the application of their owners on the plea that they were contraband of war, that is, property which could be used in military operations, and therefore, by the laws of war, subject to seizure. He set the able-bodied men to work upon government fortifications, and when they brought their women and children with them he issued rations to them and charged them to the service of the men. The President sustained General Butler's action in this case and the example was followed by other commanders. The government ordered strict accounts to be kept of the labor thus performed, as it was not yet determined that these laborers should be regarded as free. On Aug. 6, 1861, the President signed an act passed by Congress which declared that when any slave was employed in any military or naval service against the government the person by whom his labor was claimed, that is, his owner, should forfeit all claims to such labor. The intent at the time this bill was passed was that it should be in force only tentatively, for few were then able to see what proportions the war would assume and what other measures would be found necessary to end it. General Frémont, then in command of the Western Department of the army, chose to assume that the confiscation act of Congress had unlimited scope, and Aug. 31, 1861, issued a proclamation confiscating the property and freeing the slaves of all citizens of Missouri who had taken, or should take, up arms against the government. This action of Frémont embarrassed President Lincoln greatly. For whatever may have been his hope that the outcome of the war would be the final abolition of slavery, he could not fail to see that to permit the generals of the army to take such a course then in this matter was rather premature. He accordingly wrote to General Frémont requesting him to modify his proclamation. The general replied with a request that the President himself would make the necessary modifications. President Lincoln therefore issued a special order, Sept. 11, 1861, declaring that the emancipation clause of General Frémont's proclamation "be so modified, held, and construed as to conform with and not to transcend the provisions on the same subject contained in the act of Congress approved Aug. 6," preceding.

Another instance of the kind occurred at the hands of General Hunter, the following year. That officer, being in command at Hilton Head, N. C., proclaimed the States of Georgia, Florida, and South

Carolina, in his department, under martial law, and May 9, 1862, issued an order in which occurred these words: "Slavery and martial law in a free country are altogether incompatible. The persons in these States—Georgia, Florida, and South Carolina—heretofore held as slaves are therefore declared forever free." Though President Lincoln had been bitterly censured by extremists for his action towards General Frémont, and though he knew that to interfere with General Hunter would only bring upon him even a worse storm of reproaches, he did not shrink from what he believed his duty in the matter. He immediately issued a proclamation sternly revoking General Hunter's order, saying that the government had not had any knowledge of the general's intention to issue an order, and distinctly stating that "neither General Hunter nor any other commander or person has been authorized by the government of the United States to make proclamation declaring the slaves of any State free." "I further make known," he continued, "that whether it be competent for me, as commander-in-chief of the army and navy, to declare the slaves of any State or States free; and whether, at any time or in any case, it shall have become a necessity indispensable to the maintenance of the government to exercise such supposed power, are questions which, under my responsibility, I reserve to myself, and which I cannot feel justified in leaving to commanders in the field." Though much displeasure was expressed by many at the time concerning the position thus taken by the President, it was generally admitted later that he was justified in taking it, since it was from no lack of sympathy with the cause of emancipation that he withheld his sanction from the premature attempts to secure it.

On July 16, 1862, Congress passed an act for the suppression of slavery, one provision of which declared the absolute "freedom of the slaves of rebels" under certain operations of war therein defined. This gave the President a wide field for the exercise of executive power, but he used it with great prudence. The patient Lincoln hoped the wise men among the Confederates might heed the threat contained in the act. Finally, in September, he issued the following warning proclamation:

"PROCLAMATION.

"I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States of America, and Commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy thereof, do hereby proclaim and declare that hereafter, as heretofore, the war will be prosecuted for the object of practically restoring the constitutional relation between the United States and each of the States, and the people thereof, in which States that relation is or may be suspended or disturbed.

"That it is my purpose, upon the next meeting of Congress, to again recommend the adoption of a practical measure tendering pecuniary aid to the free acceptance or rejection of all slave States, so-called, the people whereof may not then be in rebellion against the United States, and which States may then have voluntarily adopted, or thereafter may voluntarily adopt, immediate or gradual abolishment of slavery within their respective limits; and that the efforts to colonize persons of African descent, with their consent, upon this continent or elsewhere, with the previously obtained consent of the governments existing there, will be continued.

"That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State, or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the Executive Government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.

"That the Executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof respectively shall then be in rebellion against the United States, and the fact that any State, or the people thereof, shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States, by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State, and the people thereof, are not then in rebellion against the United States.

"That attention is hereby called to an act of Congress entitled 'An Act to make an additional Article of War,' approved March 13, 1862, and which act is in the words and figures following:

"'*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That hereafter the following shall be promulgated as an additional article of war for the govern-

ment of the army of the United States, and shall be obeyed and observed as such:

"'Article —. All officers or persons in the military or naval service of the United States are prohibited from employing any of the forces under their respective commands for the purpose of returning fugitives from service or labor who may have escaped from any persons to whom such service or labor is claimed to be due; and any officer who shall be found guilty by a court martial of violating this article shall be dismissed from the service.

"'Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That this act shall take effect from and after its passage.'

"Also, to the ninth and tenth sections of an act entitled 'An Act to Suppress Insurrection, to Punish Treason and Rebellion, to Seize and Confiscate Property of Rebels, and for other Purposes," approved July 17, 1862, and which sections are in the words and figures following:

"'Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted,* That all slaves of persons who shall hereafter be engaged in rebellion against the Government of the United States, or who shall in any way give aid or comfort thereto, escaping from such persons and taking refuge within the lines of the army; and all slaves captured from such persons, or deserted by them and coming under the control of the Government of the United States; and all slaves of such persons found on (or) being within any place occupied by rebel forces and afterward occupied by the forces of the United States, shall be deemed captives of war, and shall be forever free of their servitude, and not again held as slaves.

"'Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted,* That no slave escaping into any State, Territory, or the District of Columbia, from any other State, shall be delivered up, or in any way impeded or hindered of his liberty, except for crime, or some offence against the laws, unless the person claiming said fugitive shall first make an oath that the person to whom the labor or service of such fugitive is alleged to be due is his lawful owner, and has not borne arms against the United States in the present rebellion, nor in any way given aid and comfort thereto; and no persons engaged in the military or naval service of the United States shall, under any pretence whatever, assume to decide on the validity of the claim of any person to the service or labor of any other person, or surrender up any such person to the claimant, on pain of being dismissed from the service.'

"And I do hereby enjoin upon and order all persons engaged in the military and naval service of the United States to observe, obey, and enforce, within their respective spheres of service, the act and sections above recited.

"And the Executive will in due time recommend that all citizens of the United States who shall have remained loyal thereto throughout the rebellion shall (upon the restoration of the constitutional relation between the United States and their respective States and people, if that relation shall have been suspended or disturbed) be compensated for all losses by acts of the United States, including the loss of slaves.

"In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

"Done at the city of Washington, this twenty-second day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, and of the Independence of the United States the eighty-seventh.

"ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

"By the President:

"WILLIAM H. SEWARD, *Secretary of State.*"

This warning was unheeded, and on the day mentioned the President issued the following proclamation:

"PROCLAMATION.

"*Whereas,* On the 22d day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, a proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing, among other things, the following, to wit:

"'That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the Executive Government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.

"'That the Executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof, respectively, shall then be in rebellion against the United States; and the fact that any State, or the people thereof, shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such States shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State, and the people thereof, are not then in rebellion against the United States.'

"Now, therefore, I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as Commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion against the authority and Government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in accordance with my purpose so to do, publicly proclaimed for the full period of one hundred days from the day first above mentioned, order and designate,

FACSIMILE OF THE PROCLAMATION OF EMANCIPATION

Whereas, on the twenty-second day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, a proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing, among other things, the following, to wit:

"That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the Executive Government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.

"That the Executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof, respectively, shall then be in rebellion against the United States; and the fact that any State, or the people thereof, shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States, by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State, and the people thereof, are not then in rebellion against the United States."

Now, therefore I, Abraham Lincoln President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion against authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in accordance with my purpose so to do, publicly proclaimed for the full period of one hundred days from the day first above mentioned order and designate

as the States and parts of States wherein the peoples thereof respectively, are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, to wit:

Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana, (except the Parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles St. James Ascension, Assumption, Terrebonne, Lafourche, St. Mary, St. Martin and Orleans, including the City of New-Orleans) Mississippi, Alabama Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia, (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia, and also the counties of Berkley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York Princess Anne, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk & Portsmouth); and which excepted parts are, for the present, left precisely as if this proclamation were not issued.

And by virtue of the power, and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States, and parts of States, are, and hencefoward shall be free; and that the Executive government of the United States, including the Military and naval authorities thereof will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons

And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defence; and I recommend to them that in all cases when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages.

And I further declare and make known that such persons of suitable condition will be received into the armed service of the United States to garrison forts, positions stations and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution, upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty three, and of the

L.S. Independence of the United States of America the eighty-seventh.

Abraham Lincoln

By the President;
William H. Seward,
Secretary of State.

as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof, respectively, are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, to wit:

"Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana (except the parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles, St. James, Ascension, Assumption, Terre Bonne, Lafourche, Ste. Marie, St. Martin, and Orleans, including the city of New Orleans), Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia, and also the counties of Berkeley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Anne and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth), and which excepted parts are, for the present, left precisely as if this proclamation were not issued.

"And by virtue of the power and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States and parts of States are, and henceforward shall be, free; and that the Executive Government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons.

"And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defence; and I recommend to them that, in all cases when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages.

"And I further declare and make known that such persons, of suitable condition, will be received into the armed service of the United States, to garrison forts, positions, stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

"And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution, upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

"In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my name, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

"Done at the City of Washington, this first day of January, in [L.S.] the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and of the Independence of the United States the eighty-seventh.

"ABRAHAM LINCOLN.*

"By the President:

"WILLIAM H. SEWARD, *Secretary of State.*"

By the Emancipation Proclamation 3,063,392 slaves were set free, as follows:

Arkansas	111,104
Alabama	435,132
Florida	61,753
Georgia	462,232
Mississippi	436,696
North Carolina	275,081
South Carolina	402,541
Texas	180,682
Virginia (part)	450,437
Louisiana (part)	247,734

* The pen with which President Lincoln wrote his Proclamation of Emancipation was given to Senator Sumner by the President, at the request of the former, and by him presented to the late George Livermore, of Boston. It is a steel-pen, of the kind called "The Washington," in a common cedar holder—all as plain and unostentatious as was the President himself.

The institution was not disturbed by the proclamation in eight States, which contained 831,780 slaves, distributed as follows:

Delaware	1,798
Kentucky	225,490
Maryland	87,188
Missouri	114,465
Tennessee	275,784
Louisiana (part)	85,281
West Virginia	12,761
Virginia (part)	29,013

The remainder were emancipated by the Thirteenth Amendment to the national Constitution, making the whole number set free 3,895,172.

On the preceding pages is given a facsimile of the Proclamation of Emancipation.

Embargo Acts. The British Orders in Council (Nov. 6, 1793) and a reported speech of Lord Dorchester (Guy Carleton) to a deputation of the Western Indians, produced much indignation against the British government. Under the stimulus of this excitement Congress passed (March 26, 1794) a joint resolution laying an embargo on commerce for thirty days. The measure seemed to have chiefly in view the obstructing the supply of provisions for the British fleet and army in the West Indies. It operated quite as much against the French. Subsequently (April 7) a resolution was introduced to discontinue all commercial intercourse with Great Britain and her subjects, as far as respected all articles of the growth or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, until the surrender of the Western posts and ample compensation should be given for all losses and damages growing out of British aggression on the neutral rights of the Americans. It was evident from the course that the debate assumed and from the temper manifested by the House that the resolution would be adopted. This measure would have led directly to war. To avert this calamity, Washington was inclined to send a special minister to England. The appointment of JOHN JAY (*q. v.*) followed.

On the receipt of despatches from Minister Armstrong, at Paris, containing information about the new interpretation of the Berlin decree and also of the British Orders in Council, President Jefferson, who had called Congress together earlier than usual (Oct. 25, 1807), sent a message to that body communicating facts in his possession and recommending the passage of an embargo act—"an inhibition of the departure of our vessels from the ports of the United States." The Senate, after a session of four hours, passed a bill—22 to 6—laying an embargo on all shipping, foreign and domestic, in the ports of the United States, with specified exceptions and ordering all vessels abroad to return home forthwith. This was done in secret session. The House, also with closed doors, debated the bill three days and nights, and it was passed by a vote of 82 to 44, and became a law Dec. 22, 1807.

Unlimited in its duration and universal in its application, the embargo was an experiment never before tried by any nation—an attempt to compel two belligerent powers to respect the rights of neutrals by withholding intercourse with all the world. It accomplished nothing, or worse than nothing. It aroused against the United States whatever spirit of honor and pride existed in both nations. Opposition to the measure, in and out of Congress, was violent and incessant, and on March 1, 1809, it was repealed. At the same time Congress passed a law forbidding all commercial intercourse with France and England until the Orders in Council and the decrees should be repealed.

Bonaparte's response to the Embargo Act of 1807 was issued from Bayonne, April 17, 1808. He was there to dethrone his Spanish ally to make place for one of his own family. His decree authorized the seizure and confiscation of all American vessels in France, or which might arrive in France. It was craftily answered, when Armstrong remonstrated, that, as no American vessels could be lawfully abroad after the passage of the Embargo Act, those pretending to be such must be British vessels in disguise.

Feeling the pressure of the opposition to the embargo at home, Pinckney was authorized to propose to the British ministry a repeal of the Embargo Act, as to Great Britain, on condition of the recall

of her Orders in Council. Not wishing to encounter a refusal, Pinckney sounded Canning, the secretary of foreign affairs, who gradually led the American minister into making a formal proposition. To this Canning made a reply (Sept. 28, 1808) in writing, unsurpassed in diplomatic cunning and partially concealed sarcasm. It also contained sound views on the whole subject of the orders and decrees. Canning insisted that, as France was the original aggressor, by the issuing of the Berlin decree, retaliation (the claimed cause of the embargo) ought, in the first instance, to have been directed against that power alone; and England could not consent to buy off a hostile procedure, of which she ought never to have been made the object, at the expense of a concession made, not to the United States, upon whom the operation of the British orders was merely incidental, but to France, against which country, in a spirit of just retaliation, they had been originally aimed. The Berlin decree had been the beginning of an attempt to overthrow the political power of Great Britain by destroying her commerce, and almost all Europe had been compelled to join in that attempt; and the American embargo had, in fact, come in aid of Napoleon's continental system. This attempt, Canning said, was not likely to succeed, yet it was important to the reputation of Great Britain not to show the least sign of yielding while the slightest doubt existed of its unequivocal failure, or the smallest link in the confederacy against her remained undissolved.

EMBARGO.

The disconcerted American ambassador, evidently piqued at the result of his proposition, advised his government to persevere in the embargo. The embargo was far less effectual abroad than it was supposed it would be, and the difficulty of maintaining it strictly at home caused its repeal in March, 1809. The decided support of the embargo given by both Houses of Congress was supplemented by resolutions of the legislatures of Georgia, the Carolinas, Virginia, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New Hampshire. An enforcement act was passed (January, 1809), and, to make it efficient, the employment of twelve additional revenue cutters was authorized; also the fitting out for service of all the ships-of-war and gunboats. This enforcement act was despotic, and would not have been tolerated except as a temporary expedient, for the Orders in Council were mild in their effects upon American trade and commerce compared with that of this Embargo Act. It pretty effectually suppressed extensive smuggling, which was carried on between the United States and Canada, and at many sea-ports, especially in New England. But the opposition clamored for its repeal. At the opening of 1814 there were expectations, speedily realized, of peace near; also of a general pacification of Europe. These signs were pointed to by the opposition as cogent reasons for the repeal. These considerations had weight, added to which was the necessity for increasing the revenue. Finally, on Jan. 19 (1814), the President recommended the repeal of the Embargo Act, and it was done by Congress on April 14. There were great rejoicings throughout the country, and the demise of the Terrapin was

hailed as a good omen of commercial prosperity. The *Death of the Embargo* was celebrated in verses published in the *Federal Republican* newspaper of Georgetown, in the District of Columbia. These were reproduced in the New York *Evening Post*, with an illustration designed by John Wesley Jarvis, the painter, and drawn and engraved on wood by Dr. Alexander Anderson. The picture was redrawn and engraved by Dr. Anderson, on a reduced scale, in 1864, after a lapse of exactly fifty years. The lines which it illustrates are as follows:

TERRAPIN'S ADDRESS.

"Reflect, my friend, as you pass by,
As *you* are *now*, so once was I:
As *I* am *now*, so *you* may be—
Laid on your back to die like me!
I was, indeed, true sailor born;
To quit my friend in death I scorn.
Once Jemmy seemed to be my friend,
But basely brought me to my end!
Of head bereft, and light, and breath,
I hold *Fidelity* in death:
For 'Sailors' Rights' I still will tug;
And Madison to death I'll hug,
For his perfidious zeal displayed
For 'Sailors' Rights and for Free-trade.'
This small atonement I will have—
I'll lug down Jemmy to the grave.
Then trade and commerce shall be free,
And sailors have their liberty.
Of head bereft, and light, and breath,
The Terrapin, still true in death,
Will punish Jemmy's perfidy—
Leave trade and brother sailors free."

DEATH OF TERRAPIN, OR THE EMBARGO.

PASSENGER'S REPLY.

'Yes, Terrapin, bereft of breath,
We see thee faithful still in death.
Stick to't—'Free-trade and Sailors' Rights.'
Hug Jemmy—press him—hold him—bite.
Never mind thy head—thou'lt live without it;
Spunk will preserve thy life—don't doubt it.
Down to the grave, t' atone for sin,
Jemmy must go with Terrapin.
Bear *him* but off, and we shall see
Commerce restored and sailors free!
Hug, Terrapin, with all thy might—
Now for 'Free-trade and Sailors' Right.'
Stick to him, Terrapin! to thee the nation
Now eager looks—then die for her salvation.

"FLOREAT RESPUBLICA.

"BANKS OF GOOSE CREEK, CITY OF WASHINGTON, *15th April*, 1814."

The continued aggressions of the British upon American commerce created a powerful war party in the United States in 1811, and a stirring report of the committee on foreign relations, submitted to Congress in November, intensified that feeling. Bills were speedily passed for augmenting the army, and other preparations for war were made soon after the opening of the year 1812. The President was averse to war, but his party urged and threatened him so pertinaciously that he consented to declare war against Great Britain. As a preliminary measure he sent a confidential message to Congress (April 1, 1812) recommending the passage of an act laying an embargo for sixty days. A bill was introduced to that effect by Mr. Calhoun, of South Carolina, which prohibited the sailing of any vessel for any foreign port, except foreign ships with such cargoes as they might have on board when notified of the act. The bill was passed (April 6), and was speedily followed by a supplementary act (April 14) prohibiting exportations by land, whether of goods or specie. The latter measure was called the land embargo. It was vehemently denounced, for it suddenly suppressed an active and lucrative trade between the United States and Canada.

It was ascertained that the British blockading squadron in American waters was constantly supplied with provisions from American ports by unpatriotic men;

also that British manufactures were being introduced on professedly neutral vessels. Such traffic was extensively carried on, especially in New England ports, where magistrates were often leniently disposed towards such violators of law. In a confidential message (Dec. 9, 1813) the President recommended the passage of an embargo act to suppress the traffic, and one passed both Houses on the 17th, to remain in force until Jan. 1, 1815, unless the war should sooner cease. It prohibited, under severe penalties, the exportation, or attempt at exportation, by land or water, of any goods, produce, specie, or live-stock; and to guard against evasions even the coast trade was entirely prohibited. This bore heavily on the business of some of the New England sea-coast towns. No transportation was allowed, even on inland waters, without special permission from the President. While the act bore so heavily on honest traders, it stopped the illicit business of "speculators, knaves, and traders." This act, like all similar ones, was called a "terrapin policy"; The man cries out, "D—n it, how he nicks 'em." The victim exclaims, "Oh! this cursed Ograbme!"—the letters of the last word, transposed, spell *embargo*. This act was repealed in April, 1814.

Embassy. An ambassador, as the representative of the person of his sovereign, can demand a private audience of the sovereign to whom he is accredited, while an envoy must deal with the foreign minister. In 1915 the United States had embassies in Argentina, Austria-Hungary, Brazil, Chile, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Mexico (vacant), Russia, Spain, and Turkey.

Embry, JAMES CRAWFORD, clergyman; born Nov. 2, 1834; bishop of the African M. E. Church in 1896; author of *Condition and Prospects of the Colored American*. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 11, 1897.

Embury, PHILIP, clergyman; born in Ballygaran, Ireland, Sept. 21, 1729; came to New York in 1760, and at the solicitation of Barbara Heck he began to hold services in his own house, and later on in a rigging-loft. This was the foundation of Methodism in the United States. The first Methodist church was built in John Street in 1768, under the supervision of Embury, he himself working on the building gratuitously. He died in Camden, N. Y., in August, 1775.

Emerson, RALPH WALDO, author; leader of the transcendental school of New England; born in Boston, May 25, 1803; graduated at Harvard in 1821; taught school five years, and in 1826 was licensed to preach by the Middlesex (Unitarian) Association. In the winter of 1833–34, after returning from Europe, he began the career of a lecturer and essayist. Marrying in 1835, he fixed his

RALPH WALDO EMERSON

residence at Concord, Mass., and was a contributor to, and finally editor of, *The Dial*, a quarterly magazine, and organ of the New England transcendentalists. He lived the quiet life of a literary man and philosopher for more than forty years. He published essays, poems, etc. He died in Concord, Mass., April 27, 1882.

Emigrant Aid Company. See THAYER, ELI.

Emigration. See IMMIGRATION.

Emmet, THOMAS ADDIS, patriot; born in Cork, Ireland, April 24, 1763; graduated at Trinity College, Dublin; first studied medicine, and then law, and was admitted to the Dublin bar in 1791. He became a leader of the Association of United Irishmen, and was one of a general committee whose ultimate object was to secure the freedom of Ireland from British rule. With many of his associates, he was arrested in 1798, and for more than two years was confined in Fort George, Scotland. His brother Robert, afterwards engaged in the same cause, was hanged in

Dublin in 1803. Thomas was liberated and banished to France after the Treaty of Amiens, the severest penalties being pronounced against him if he should return to Great Britain. His wife was permitted to join him on condition that she should never again set foot on British soil. He came to the United States in 1804, and became very eminent in his profession in the city of New York. He was made attorney-general of the State in 1812. A monument—an obelisk—was erected to his memory in St. Paul's churchyard, New York, on Broadway. He died in New York, Nov. 14, 1827.

Emmons, GEORGE FOSTER, naval officer; born in Clarendon, Vt., Aug. 23, 1811; entered the navy in 1828; took part in several engagements during the Mexican War; served through the Civil War, and in 1866 commanded the *Ossipee*, which carried the United States commissioners to Alaska for the purpose of hoisting the American flag over that region. He was promoted rear-admiral in 1872; retired in 1873; author of *The Navy of the United States from 1775 to 1853*. He died in Princeton, N. J., July 2, 1884.

Emory, WILLIAM HELMSLEY, military officer; born in Queen Anne's county, Md., Sept. 9, 1811; graduated at West Point in 1831. He was appointed lieutenant, July 7, 1833; was aide to General Kearny in California in 1846–47, and was made lieutenant-colonel Sept. 30, 1847. He was serving as captain of cavalry in Mexico when the Civil War broke out. In May, 1861, he was made lieutenant-colonel; served in the campaign of 1862 in the Army of the Potomac, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers in March of that year. He did good service under Banks in Louisiana, and under Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley. He was made colonel of the 5th Cavalry in the fall of 1863; in March, 1865, was brevetted brigadier-general and major-general of the United States army; and in 1876 was retired with the full rank of brigadier-general. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 1, 1887.

Emott, JAMES, jurist; born in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., March 14, 1771; graduated at Union College in 1800, and began the practice of law at Ballston Centre, but soon removed to Albany. He represented that district in the legislature in 1804. He practised law awhile in New York City, and then returned to Poughkeepsie. He was in Congress from 1809 to 1813, and was a leader of the Federal party therein. He was again in the legislature (1814-17), and was speaker of that body. From 1817 to 1823 he was first judge of Dutchess county, and was judge of the second circuit from 1827 to 1831, when he retired from public life. He died in Poughkeepsie, April 10, 1850.

Empire State, a popular name given to the State of New York, because it is the most populous, wealthy, and politically powerful State in the Union. It is sometimes called the "Excelsior State," from the motto EXCELSIOR—"higher"—on its seal and coat-of-arms. The city of New York, its commercial metropolis and the largest city in the Union, is sometimes called the "Empire City."

Employers' Liability Law, an enactment by Congress, approved April 22, 1908, regulating the liability of common carriers by railroad to their employees in certain cases. The following is the text:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled. That every common carrier by railroad while engaging in commerce between any of the several States or Territories, or between any of the States and Territories, or between the District of Columbia and any of the States or Territories, or between the District of Columbia or any of the States or Territories and any foreign nation or nations, shall be liable in damages to any person suffering injury while he is employed by such carrier in such commerce, or in case of the death of such employe, to his or her personal representative, for the benefit of the surviving widow or husband and children of such employe; and, if none, then of such employe's parents; and, if none, then of the next of kin dependent upon such employe, for such injury or death resulting in whole or in part from the negligence of any of the officers, agents, or employes of such carrier, or by reason of any defect or insufficiency, due to its negligence, in its cars, engines, appliances, machinery, track, roadbed, works, boats, wharves, or other equipment.

Sec. 2. That every common carrier by

railroad in the Territories, the District of Columbia, the Panama Canal Zone, or other possessions of the United States, shall be liable to damages to any person suffering injury while he is employed by such carrier in any of said jurisdictions, or in case of the death of such employe, to his or her personal representative for the benefit of the surviving widow or husband and children of such employe; and, if none, then of such employe's parents; and, if none, then of the next of kin dependent upon such employe, for such injury or death resulting in whole or in part from the negligence of any of the officers, agents, or employes of such carrier, or by reason of any defect or insufficiency, due to negligence, in its cars, engines, appliances, machinery, track, roadbed, works, boats, wharves, or other equipment.

Sec. 3. That in all actions hereafter brought against any such common carrier by railroad under or by virtue of any of the provisions of this act to recover damages for personal injuries to an employe, or where such injuries have resulted in his death, the fact that the employe may have been guilty of contributory negligence shall not bar a recovery, but the damages shall be diminished by the jury in proportion to the amount of negligence attributable to such employe: Provided, That no such employe who may be injured or killed shall be held to have been guilty of contributory negligence in any case where the violation by such common carrier of any statute enacted for the safety of employes contributed to the injury or death of such employe.

Sec. 4. That in any action brought against any common carrier under or by virtue of any of the provisions of this act to recover damages for injuries to, or the death of, any of its employes, such employe shall not be held to have assumed the risks of his employment in any case where the violation by such common carrier of any statute enacted for the safety of employes contributed to the injury or death of such employe.

Sec. 5. That any contract, rule, regulation, or device whatsoever, the purpose or intent of which shall be to enable any common carrier to exempt itself from any liability created by this act, shall to that extent be voided. Provided, That in any action brought against any such common carrier under or by virtue of any of the provisions of this act, such common carrier may set off therein any sum it has contributed or paid to any insurance, relief benefit, or indemnity that may have been paid to the injured employe, or the person entitled thereto on account of the injury or death for which said action was brought.

Sec. 6. That no action shall be maintained under this act unless commenced within two years from the day the cause of action accrued.

Sec. 7. That the term "common carrier" as used in this act shall include the receiver or receivers or other persons or corporations charged with the duty of the management and operation of the business of a common carrier.

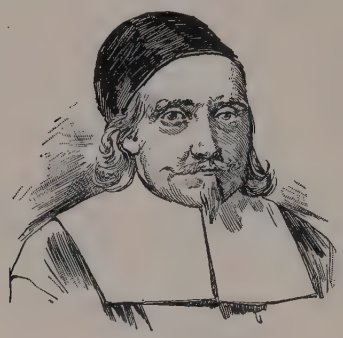
Sec. 8. That nothing in this act shall be held to limit the duty or liability of common carriers or to impair the rights of their employes under any other act or acts of Congress, or to affect the prosecution of any pending proceeding or right of action under the act of Congress entitled "An Act Relating to Liability of Common Carriers in the District of Columbia and Territories, and to Common Carriers Engaged in Commerce between the States and between the States and Foreign Nations to their Employes," approved June 11, 1906.

A general employers' liability law has been adopted by several of the States, applying to all kinds of employment.

Emucfau, BATTLE OF. On a bend in the Tallapoosa River in Alabama was a Creek village named Emucfau. Jackson, with a considerable force (Jan. 21, 1814), was attacked at six o'clock in the morning by a party of Creek warriors. A vigorous cavalry charge was made upon the foe by General Coffee, who pursued the barbarians for two miles, with much slaughter. Then a party was despatched to destroy the Indian encampment but it was too strongly fortified to be taken without artillery. When Coffee fell back to guard approaching cannon the Indians, thinking it was a retreat, again fell upon Jackson, but after a severe struggle were repulsed. Jackson made no further attempt to destroy the encampment at Emucfau. He was astonished at the prowess of the Creek war-

riors. In their retrograde movement (Jan. 24), the Tennesseeans were again threatened by the Indians, near Enotochopco Creek. A severe engagement soon ensued; but the Tennesseeans, having planted a 6-pounder cannon on an eminence, poured a storm of grape-shot on the Indians, which sent them yelling in all directions. The slaughter among the Indians was heavy, while that among the white troops was comparatively light. In the two engagements (Emucfau and Enotochopco), Jackson lost twenty killed and seventy-five wounded.

Endicott, JOHN, colonial governor; born in Dorchester, England, in 1589; was



JOHN ENDICOTT.

sent by the Massachusetts Company to superintend the plantation at Naumkeag; arrived there Sept. 6 (N. S.), and in April next year was appointed governor of the colony, but was succeeded by John Winthrop. In 1636 he was sent with Captain Underhill, with about ninety men, on an expedition against Indians on Block Island and the Pequods. Mr. Endicott was deputy-governor of Massachusetts several years, and also governor, in which office he died, March 15, 1665. Bold, energetic, sincere, and bigoted, he was the strongest of the Puritans, and was severe in the execution of laws against those who differed from the prevailing theology of the colony. He was one of the most persistent persecutors of the Quakers, and stood by unmoved, as governor, when they were hanged in Boston; and so violent were his feelings against the Roman Catholics, and anything that savored of "popery," that he caused the red cross of St. George to be cut out of the military standard. He opposed long hair on men, and insisted that the women should use veils in public assemblies. During his several administrations many were punished for the slightest offences, and four Quakers were hanged in Boston.

Endicott, WILLIAM CROWNINSHIELD, jurist; born in Salem, Mass., Nov. 19, 1827; graduated at Harvard in 1847; admitted to the bar in 1850; appointed judge of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts in 1873; became Secretary of War in 1885. Judge Endicott was a Democrat, and the unsuccessful candidate of his party for governor of Massachusetts in 1884. His daughter, Mary, married Joseph Chamberlain, English colonial secretary. He died in Boston, May 6, 1900.

ENGINEERING

Engineering. MR. THOMAS C. CLARKE (*q. v.*), Past President of the Society of Civil Engineers, writes as follows on the subject of engineering, with special reference to American engineers and their works in the United States.

Engineering is sometimes divided into civil, military, and naval engineering. The logical classification is: statical engineering and dynamical.

Statical engineering can be again subdivided into structural engineering, or that of railways, bridges, tunnels, buildings, etc.; also, into hydraulic engineering, which governs the application of water to canals, river improvements, harbors, the supply of water to towns and for irrigation, disposal of sewage, etc.

Dynamical engineering can be divided into mechanical engineering, which covers the construction of all prime motors, the transmission of power, and the use of machines and machine tools. Closely allied is electrical engineering, the art of

the transformation and transmission of energy for traction, lighting, telegraphy, telephoning, operating machinery, and many other uses, such as its electrolytic application to ores and metals.

Then we have the combined application of statical, mechanical, and electrical engineering to what is now called industrial engineering, or the production of articles useful to man. This may be divided into agricultural, mining, metallurgical, and chemical engineering.

Structural Engineering.—This is the oldest of all. We have not been able to surpass the works of the past in grandeur or durability. The pyramids of Egypt still stand, and will stand for thousands of years. Roman bridges, aqueducts, and sewers still perform their duties. Joseph's canal still irrigates lower Egypt. The great wall of China, running for 1,500 miles over mountains and plains, contains 150,000,000 cubic yards of materials and is the greatest of artificial works. No modern building compares in grandeur with St. Peter's, and the mediæval cathedrals shame our puny imitations.

Railways. — The greatest engineering work of the nineteenth century was the development of the railway system which has changed the face of the world. Beginning in 1829 with the locomotive of George Stephenson, it has extended with such strides that, after seventy years, there are 466.000 miles of railways in the world, of which 190,000 miles are in the United States. Their cost is estimated at $40,000,000,000, of which $10,000,000,000 belong to the United States.

The rapidity with which railways are built in the United States and Canada contrasts strongly with what has been done in other countries. Much has been written of the energy of Russia in building 3,000 miles of Siberian railway in five or six years. In the United States an average of 6,147 miles was completed every year during ten successive years, and in 1887 there were built 12,982 miles. They were built economically, and at first in not as solid a manner as those of Europe. Steeper gradients, sharper curves, and lighter rails were used. This rendered necessary a different kind of rolling-stock suitable to such construction. The swivelling-truck and equalizing-beam enabled our engines to run safely on tracks where the rigid European engines would soon have been in the ditch.

Our cars were made longer, and by the use of longitudinal framing much stronger. A great economy came from the use of annealed cast-iron wheels. It was soon seen that longer cars would carry a greater proportion of paying load, and the more cars that one engine could draw in a train, the less would be the cost. It was not until the invention by Bessemer in 1864 of a steel of quality and cost that made it available for rails that much heavier cars and locomotives could be used. Then came a rapid increase. As soon as Bessemer rails were made in this country, the cost fell from $175 per ton to $50, and now to $26.

Before that time a wooden car weighed 16 tons, and could carry a paying load of 15 tons. The 30-ton engines of those days could not draw on a level over thirty cars weighing 900 tons.

The pressed steel car of to-day weighs no more than the wooden car, but carries a paying load of 50 tons. The heaviest engines have now drawn on a level fifty steel cars, weighing 3,750 tons. In the one case the paying load of an engine was 450 tons; now it is 2,500 tons.

Steep grades soon developed a better brake system, and these heavier trains have led to the invention of the automatic brake worked from the engine, and also automatic couplers, saving time and many lives. The capacity of our railways has been greatly increased by the use of electric block-signals.

The perfecting of both the railway and its rolling-stock has led to remarkable results.

In 1899 Poor gives the total freight tonnage at 975,789.941 tons, and the freight receipts at $922,436,314, or an average rate per ton of 95 cents. Had the rates of 1867 prevailed, the additional yearly cost to the public would have been $4,275,000,000, or sufficient to replace the whole railway system in two and a half years. This much can surely be said: the reduction in cost of operating our railways, and the consequent fall in freight rates, have been potent factors in enabling the United States to send abroad last

year $1,456,000,000 worth of exports and flood the world with our food and manufactured products.

Bridge Building. — In early days the building of a bridge was a matter of great ceremony, and it was consecrated to protect it from evil spirits. Its construction was controlled by priests, as the title of the Pope of Rome, "Pontifex Maximus," indicates.

Railways changed all this. Instead of the picturesque stone bridge, whose long line of low arches harmonized with the landscape, there came the straight girder or high truss, ugly indeed, but quickly built, and costing much less.

Bridge construction has made greater progress in the United States than abroad. The heavy trains that we have described called for stronger bridges. The large American rolling-stock is not used in England, and but little on the continent of Europe, as the width of tunnels and other obstacles will not allow of it. It is said that there is an average of one bridge for every 3 miles of railway in the United States, making 63,000 bridges, most of which have been replaced by new and stronger ones during the last twenty years. This demand has brought into existence many bridge-building companies, some of whom make the whole bridge, from the ore to the finished product.

Before the advent of railways, highway bridges in America were made of wood, and called trusses. The coming of railways required a stronger type of bridge to carry concentrated loads, and the Howe truss, with vertical iron rods, was invented, capable of 150-foot spans.

About 1868 iron bridges began to take the place of wooden bridges. One of the first long-span bridges was a single-track railway bridge of 400-foot span over the Ohio at Cincinnati, which was considered to be a great achievement in 1870.

The Kinzua viaduct, 310 feet high and over half a mile long, belongs to this era. It is the type of the numerous high viaducts now so common.

About 1885 a new material was given to engineers, having greater strength and tenacity than iron, and commercially available from its low cost. This is basic steel. This new chemical metal, for such it is, is 50 per cent. stronger than iron, and can be tied in a knot when cold.

The effect of improved devices and the use of steel is shown by the weights of the 400-foot Ohio River iron bridge, built in 1870, and a bridge at the same place, built in 1886. The bridge of 1870 was of iron, with a span of 400 feet. The bridge of 1886 was of steel. Its span was 550 feet. The weights of the two were nearly alike.

The cantilever design, which is a revival of a very ancient type, came into use. The great Forth Bridge, in Scotland, 1,600-foot span, is of this style, as are the 500-foot spans at Poughkeepsie, and now a new one is being designed to cross the St. Lawrence near Quebec, of 1,800-foot span. This is probably near the economic limit of cantilever construction.

The suspension bridge can be extended much farther, as it carries no dead weight of compression members.

The Niagara Suspension Bridge, of 810-foot span, built by Roebling, in 1852, and the Brooklyn Bridge, of 1,600 feet, built by Roebling and his son, twenty years after, marked a wonderful advance in bridge design. The same lines of construction will be followed in the 2,700-foot span, designed to cross the North River some time in the present century. The only radical advance is the use of a better steel than could be had in earlier days.

Steel-arched bridges are now scientifically designed. Such are the new Niagara Bridge, of 840-foot span, and the Alexandra Bridge at Paris.

That which marks more clearly than anything else the great advance in American bridge building, during the last forty years, is the reconstruction of the famous Victoria Bridge, over the St. Lawrence, above Montreal. This bridge was designed by Robert Stephenson, and the stone piers are a monument to his engineering skill. For forty winters they have resisted the great fields of ice borne by a rapid current. Their dimensions were so liberal that the new bridge was put upon them, although four times as wide as the old one.

The superstructure was originally made of plate-iron tubes, reinforced by tees and

angles, similar to Stephenson's Menai Straits Bridge. There are twenty-two spans of 240 feet each, and a central one of 330 feet.

It was decided to build a new bridge of open-work construction and of open-hearth steel. This was done, and the comparison is as follows: Old bridge, 16 feet wide, single track, live load of one ton per foot; new bridge, 67 feet wide, two railway tracks and two carriage-ways, live load of 5 tons per foot.

The old iron tubes weighed 10,000 tons, cost $2,713,000, and took two seasons to erect. The new truss bridge weighs 22,000 tons, has cost $1,400,000, and the time of construction was one year.

The modern high office building is an interesting example of the evolution of a high-viaduct pier. Such a pier of the required dimensions, strengthened by more columns strong enough to carry many floors, is the skeleton frame. Enclose the sides with brick, stone, or terra-cotta, add windows, and doors, and elevators, and it is complete.

Fortunately for the stability of these high buildings, the effect of wind pressures had been studied in this country in the designs of the Kinzua, Pecos, and other high viaducts.

The modern elevated railway of cities is simply a very long railway viaduct. Some idea may be gained of the life of a modern riveted-iron structure from the experience of the Manhattan Elevated Railway of New York. These roads were built in 1878–79 to carry uniform loads of 1,600 lbs. per lineal foot, except Second Avenue, which was made to carry 2,000. The stresses were below 10,000 lbs. per square inch.

These viaducts have carried in twenty-two years over 25,000,000 trains, weighing over 3,000,000,000 tons, at a maximum speed of 25 miles an hour, and are still in good order.

We have now great bridge companies, which are so completely equipped with appliances for both shop drawings and construction that the old joke becomes almost true that they can make bridges and sell them by the mile.

All improvements of design are now public property. All that the bridge companies do is done in the fierce light of competition. Mistakes mean ruin, and the fittest only survives.

The American system gives the greatest possible rapidity of erection of the bridge on its piers. A span of 518 feet, weighing 1,000 tons, was erected at Cairo on the Mississippi in six days. The parts were not assembled until they were put upon the false works. European engineers have sometimes ordered a bridge to be riveted together complete in the maker's yard, and then taken apart.

The adoption of American work in such bridges as the Atbara in South Africa, the Gokteik viaduct in Burmah, 320 feet high, and others, was due to low cost, quick delivery and erection, as well as excellence of material and construction.

Foundations, etc. — Bridges must have foundations for their piers. Up to the middle of the nineteenth century engineers knew no better way of making them than by laying bare the bed of the river by a pumped-out cofferdam, or by driving piles into the sand, as Julius Cæsar did. About the middle of the century, M. Triger, a French engineer, conceived the first plan of a pneumatic foundation, which led to the present system of compressing air by pumping it into an inverted box, called a caisson, with air locks on top to enable men and materials to go in and out. After the soft materials were removed, and the caisson sunk by its own weight to the proper depth, it was filled with concrete. The limit of depth is that in which men can work in compressed air without injury, and this is not much over 100 feet.

The foundations of the Brooklyn and St. Louis bridges were put down in this manner.

In the construction of the Poughkeepsie bridge over the Hudson in 1887–88, it became necessary to go down 135 feet below tide-level before hard bottom was reached. Another process was invented to take the place of compressed air. Timber caissons were built, having double sides, and the spaces between them filled with stone to give weight. Their tops were left open and the American single-bucket dredge was used. This bucket was lowered and lifted by a very long wire rope worked by the engine, and with it the soft material was removed. The in

ternal space was then filled with concrete laid under water by the same bucket, and levelled by divers when necessary.

While this work was going on, the government of New South Wales, in Australia, called for both designs and tenders for a bridge over an estuary of the sea called Hawkesbury. The conditions were the same as that at Poughkeepsie, except that the soft mud reached to a depth of 160 feet below tide-level.

The designs of the engineers of the Poughkeepsie bridge were accepted, and the same method of sinking open caissons (in this case made of iron) was carried out with perfect success.

The erection of this bridge involved another difficult problem. The mud was too soft and deep for piles and staging, and the cantilever system in this site would have increased the cost.

The solution of the problems presented at Hawkesbury gave the second introduction of American engineers to bridge building outside of America. The first was in 1786, when an American carpenter or shipwright built a bridge over Charles River at Boston, 1,470 feet long by 46 feet wide. This bridge was of wood supported on piles. His work gained for him such renown that he was called to Ireland and built a similar bridge at Belfast.

Tunnelling by compressed air is a horizontal application of compressed-air foundations. The earth is supported by an iron tube, which is added to in rings, which are pushed forward by hydraulic jacks.

A tunnel is now being made under an arm of the sea between Boston and East Boston, some 1,400 feet long and 65 feet below tide. The interior lining of iron tubing is not used. The tunnel is built of concrete, reinforced by steel rods. Success in modern engineering means doing a thing in the most economical way consistent with safety. Had the North River tunnel, at New York, been designed on equally scientific principles it would probably have been finished, which now seems problematical.

The construction of rapid-transit railways in cities is another branch of engineering. Some of these railways are elevated, and are merely railway viaducts, but the favorite type now is that of subways. There are two kinds, those near the surface, like the District railways of London, the subways in Paris, Berlin, and Boston, and that now building in New York. The South London and Central London, and other London projects, are tubes sunk 50 to 80 feet below the surface and requiring elevators for access.

The construction of the Boston subway was difficult on account of the small width of the streets, their great traffic, and the necessity of underpinning the foundations of buildings. All of this was successfully done without disturbing the traffic for a single day, and reflects great credit on the engineer. Owing to the great width of New York streets, the problem is simpler in that respect. Although many times as long as the Boston subway, it will be built in nearly the same time. The design, where in earth, may be compared to that of a steel office building 20 miles long, laid flat on one of its sides.

The construction of power-houses for developing energy from coal and from falling water requires much engineering ability. The Niagara power-house is intended to develop 100,000 horse-power; that at the Sault Ste. Marie as much; that on the St. Lawrence, at Massena, 70,000 horse-power. These are huge works, requiring tunnels, rock-cut chambers, and masonry and concrete in walls and dams. They cover large extents of territory.

The contrast in size of the coal-using power-houses is interesting. The new power-house now building by the Manhattan Elevated Railway, in New York, develops in the small space of 200 by 400 feet 100,000 horse-power, or as much power as that utilized at Niagara Falls.

One of the most useful materials which modern engineers now make use of is concrete, which can be put into confined spaces and laid under water. It costs less than masonry, while as strong. This is the revival of the use of a material used by the Romans. The writer was once allowed to climb a ladder and look at the construction of the dome of the Pantheon, at Rome. He found it a monolithic mass of concrete, and hence without thrust. It is a better piece of engineering construction than the dome of St. Peter's, built

1,500 years later. The dome of Columbia College Library, in New York, is built of concrete.

Hydraulic Engineering.—This is one of the oldest branches of engineering, and was developed before the last century. The irrigation works of Asia, Africa, Spain, Italy, the Roman aqueducts, and the canals of Europe, are examples. Hydraulic works cannot be constructed in ignorance of the laws which govern the flow of water. The action of water is relentless, as ruined canals, obstructed rivers, and washed-out dams testify.

The removal of sewage, after having been done by the Etruscans before the foundation of Rome, became a lost art during the dirty Dark Ages, when filth and piety were deemed to be connected in some mysterious way. It was reserved for good John Wesley to point out that "Cleanliness is next to godliness." Now sewage works are as common as those for water supply. Some of them have been of great size and cost. Such are the drainage works of London, Paris, Berlin, Boston, Chicago, and New Orleans. A very difficult work was the drainage of the City of Mexico, which is in a valley surrounded by mountains, and elevated only 4 or 5 feet above a lake having no outlet. Attempts to drain the lake had been made in vain for 600 years. It has lately been accomplished by a tunnel 6 miles long through the mountains, and a canal of over 30 miles, the whole work costing some $20,000,000.

The drainage of Chicago by locks and canal into the Illinois River has cost some $35,000,000, and is well worth its cost.

Scientific research has been applied to the designing of high masonry and concrete dams, and we know now that no well-designed dam on a good foundation should fail. The dams now building across the Nile by order of the British government will create the largest artificial lakes in the world.

The Suez Canal is one of the largest hydraulic works of the last century, and is a notable instance of the displacement of hand labor by the use of machinery. Ismaïl began by impressing a large part of the peasant population of Egypt, just as Rameses had done over 3,000 years before. These unfortunate people were set to dig the sand with rude hoes, and carry it away in baskets on their heads. They died by thousands for want of water and proper food. At last the French engineers persuaded the Khedive to let them introduce steam dredging machinery. A light railway was laid to supply provisions, and a small ditch dug to bring pure water. The number of men employed fell to one-fourth. Machinery did the rest. But for this the canal would never have been finished.

The Panama Canal now uses the best modern machinery, and the Nicaragua Canal, if built, will apply still better methods, developed on the Chicago drainage canal, where material was handled at a less cost than has ever been done before.

The Erie Canal was one of very small cost, but its influence has been surpassed by none. The "winning of the West" was hastened many years by the construction of this work in the first quarter of the century. Two horses were just able to draw a ton of goods at the speed of 2 miles an hour over the wretched roads of those days. When the canal was made these two horses could draw a boat carrying 150 tons 4 miles an hour.

The Erie Canal was made by engineers, but it had to make its own engineers first, as there were none available in this country at that time. These self-taught men, some of them land surveyors and others lawyers, showed themselves the equals of the Englishmen Brindley and Smeaton, when they located a water route through the wilderness, having a uniform descent from Lake Erie to the Hudson, and which would have been so built if there had been enough money.

There should be a waterway from the Hudson to Lake Erie large enough for vessels able to navigate the lakes and the ocean. A draft of 21 feet can be had at a cost estimated at $200,000,000.

The deepening of the Chicago drainage canal to the Mississippi River, and the deepening of the Mississippi itself to the Gulf of Mexico, is a logical sequence of the first project. The Nicaragua Canal would then form one part of a great line of navigation, by which the products of the interior of the continent could reach either the Atlantic or Pacific Ocean.

The cost would be small compared with the resulting benefits, and some day this navigation will be built by the government of the United States.

The deepening of the Southwest Pass of the Mississippi River from 6 to 30 feet by James B. Eads was a great engineering achievement. It was the first application of the jetty system on a large scale. This is merely confining the flow of a river, and thus increasing its velocity so that it secures a deeper channel for itself.

The improvement of harbors follows closely the increased size of ocean and lake vessels. The approach to New York Harbor is now being deepened to 40 feet, a thing impossible to be done without the largest application of steam machinery in a suction dredge boat.

The Croton Aqueduct of New York was thought by its designers to be on a scale large enough to last for all time. It is now less than sixty years old, and the population of New York will soon be too large to be supplied by it. It is able to supply 250,000,000 to 300,000,000 gallons daily, and its cost, when the Cornell dam and Jerome Park reservoir are finished, will be a little over $92,000,000.

It is now suggested to store water in the Adirondack Mountains, 203 miles away, by dams built at the outlet of ten or twelve lakes. This will equalize the flow of the Hudson River so as to give 3,000,000,000 to 4,000,000,000 gallons daily. It is then proposed to pump 1,000,000,000 gallons daily from the Hudson River at Poughkeepsie, 60 miles away, to a height sufficient to supply New York City by gravity through an aqueduct.

If this scheme is carried out, the total supply will be about 1,300,000,000 gallons daily, or enough for a population of from 12,000,000 to 13,000,000 persons. By putting in more pumps, filter-beds, and conduits, this supply can be increased 40 per cent., or to 1,800,000,000 gallons daily. This is a fair example of the scale of the engineering works of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

Mechanical Engineering. — This is employed in all dynamical engineering. It covers the designs of prime motors of all sorts, steam, gas, and gasoline reciprocating engines; also steam and water turbines, wind-mills, and wave-motors.

It comprises all means of transmitting power, as by shafting, ropes, pneumatic pressure, and compressed air, all of which seem likely to be superseded by electricity.

It covers the construction of machine tools and machinery of all kinds. It enters into all the processes of structural, hydraulic, electrical, and industrial engineering. The special improvements are: The almost universal use of rotary motion, and of the reduplication of parts.

The steam-engine is a machine of reciprocating, converted into rotary, motion by the crank. The progress of mechanical engineering during the nineteenth century is measured by the improvements of the steam-engine, principally in the direction of saving fuel, by the invention of internal combustion or gas-engines, the application of electrical transmission, and, latest, the practical development of steam turbines by Parsons, Westinghouse, Delaval, Curtis, and others. In these a jet of steam impinges upon buckets set upon the circumference of a wheel. Their advantages are that their motion is rotary and not reciprocal. They can develop speed of from 5,000 to 30,000 revolutions per minute, while the highest ever attained by a reciprocating engine is not over 1,000. Their thermodynamic losses are less, hence they consume less steam and less fuel.

Duplication of parts has lowered the cost of all products. Clothing is one of these. The parts of ready-made garments and shoes are now cut into shape in numbers at a time, by sharp-edged templates, and then fastened together by sewing-machines.

Mechanical engineering is a good example of the survival of the fittest. Millions of dollars are expended on machinery, when suddenly a new discovery or invention casts them all into the scrap heap, to be replaced by those of greater earning capacity.

Prime motors derive their energy either from coal or other combinations of carbon, such as petroleum, or from gravity. This may come from falling water, and the old-fashioned water-wheels of the eighteenth century were superseded in the nineteenth by turbines, first invented in France and since greatly perfected. These

are used in the electrical transmission of water-power at Niagara of 5,000 horse-power, and form a very important part of the plant.

The other gravity motors are wind-mills and wave-motors. Wind-mills are an old invention, but have been greatly improved in the United States by the use of the self-reefing wheel. The great plains of the West are subject to sudden, violent gales of wind, and unless the wheel was automatically self-reefing it would often be destroyed.

There have been vast numbers of patents taken out for wave-motors. One was invented in Chile, South America, which furnished a constant power for four months, and was utilized in sawing planks. The action of waves is more constant on the Pacific coast of America than elsewhere, and some auxiliary power, such as a gasoline engine, which can be quickly started and stopped, must be provided for use during calm days. The prime cost of such a machine need not exceed that of a steam plant, and the cost of operating is much less than that of any fuel-burning engine. The saving of coal is a very important problem. In a wider sense, we may say that the saving of all the great stores which nature has laid up for us during the past, and which have remained almost untouched until the nineteenth century, is *the* great problem of to-day.

Petroleum and natural gas may disappear. The ores of gold, silver, and platinum will not last forever. Trees will grow, and iron ores seem to be practically inexhaustible. Chemistry has added a new metal in aluminum, which replaces copper for many purposes. One of the greatest problems of the twentieth century is to discover some chemical process for treating iron, by which oxidation will not take place.

Coal, next to grain, is the most important of nature's gifts; it can be exhausted, or the cost of mining it become so great that it cannot be obtained in the countries where it is most needed; water, wind, and wave power may take its place to a limited extent, and greater use may be made of the waste gases coming from blast or smelter furnaces, but as nearly all energy comes from coal, its use must be economized, and the greatest economy will come from pulverizing coal and using it in the shape of a fine powder. Inventions have been made trying to deliver this powder into the fire-box as fast as made, for it is as explosive as gunpowder, and as dangerous to store or handle. If this can be done, there will be a saving of coal due to perfect and smokeless combustion, as the admission of air can be entirely regulated, the same blast which throws in the powder furnishing oxygen. Some investigators have estimated that the saving of coal will be as great as 20 per cent. This means 100,000,000 tons of coal annually.

Another problem of mechanical engineering is to determine whether it will be found more economical to transform the energy of coal, at the mines, into electric current and send it by wire to cities and other places where it is wanted, or to carry the coal by rail and water, as we now do, to such places, and convert it there by the steam or gas engine.

Metallurgy and Mining.—All the processes of metallurgy and mining employ statical, hydraulic, mechanical, and electrical engineering. Coal, without railways and canals, would be of little use, unless electrical engineering came to its aid.

It was estimated by the late Lord Armstrong that of the 450,000,000 to 500,000,000 tons of coal annually produced in the world, one-third is used for steam production, one-third in metallurgical processes, and one-third for domestic consumption.

Next in importance comes the production of iron and steel. Steel, on account of its great cost and brittleness, was only used for tools and special purposes until past the middle of the nineteenth century. This has been all changed by the invention of his steel by Bessemer in 1864, and open-hearth steel in the furnace of Siemens, perfected some twenty years since by Gilchrist & Thomas.

The United States have taken the lead in steel manufacture. In 1873 Great Britain made three times as much steel as the United States. Now the United States makes twice as much as Great Britain, or 40 per cent. of all the steel made in the world.

Mr. Carnegie has explained the reason why, in epigrammatic phrase: "Three

lbs. of steel billets can be sold for 2 cents."

This stimulates rail and water traffic and other industries, as he tells us 1 lb. of steel requires 2 lbs. of ore, $1^1/_8$ lbs. of coal, and $^1/_3$ lb. of limestone.

It is not surprising, therefore, that the States bordering on the lakes have created a traffic of 25,000,000 tons yearly through the Sault Ste. Marie Canal, while the Suez, which supplies the wants of half the population of the world, has only 7,000,000, or less than the tonnage of the little Harlem River at New York.

Industrial Engineering.—This leads us to our last topic, for which too little room has been left. Industrial engineering covers statical, hydraulic, mechanical, and electrical engineering, and adds a new branch which we may call chemical engineering. This is pre-eminently a child of the nineteenth century, and is the conversion of one thing into another by a knowledge of their chemical constituents.

When Dalton first applied mathematics to chemistry and made it quantitative, he gave the key which led to the discoveries of Cavendish, Gay-Lussac, Berzelius, Liebig, and others. This new knowledge was not locked up, but at once given to the world, and made use of. Its first application on a large scale was made by Napoleon in encouraging the manufacture of sugar from beets.

The new products were generally made from what were called "waste material." We now have the manufacture of soda, bleaching powders, aniline dyes, and other products of the distillation of coal, also coal-oil from petroleum, acetylene gas, celluloid, rubber goods in all their numerous varieties, high explosives, cement, artificial manures, artificial ice, beet-sugar, and even beer may now be included.

The value of our mechanical and chemical products is great, but it is surpassed by that of food products. If these did not keep pace with the increase of population, the theories of Malthus would be true—but he never saw a modern reaper.

The steam-plough was invented in England some fifty years since, but the great use of agricultural machinery dates from our Civil War, when so many men were taken from agriculture. It became necessary to fill their places with machinery. Without tracing the steps which have led to it, we may say that the common type is what is called "the binder," and is a machine drawn chiefly by animals, and in some cases by a field locomotive.

It cuts, rakes, and binds sheaves of grain at one operation. Sometimes threshing and winnowing machines are combined with it, and the grain is delivered into bags ready for the market.

Different machines are used for cutting and binding corn, and for mowing and raking hay, but the most important of all is the grain-binder. The extent of their use may be known from the fact that 75,000 tons of twine are used by these machines annually.

It is estimated that there are in the United States 1,500,000 of these machines, but as the harvest is earlier in the South, there are probably not over 1,000,000 in use at one time. As each machine takes the place of sixteen men, this means that 16,000,000 men are released from farming for other pursuits.

It is fair to assume that a large part of these 16,000,000 men have gone into manufacturing, the operating of railways, and other pursuits. The use of agricultural machinery, therefore, is one explanation of why the United States produces eight-tenths of the world's cotton and corn, one-quarter of its wheat, one-third of its meat and iron, two-fifths of its steel, and one-third of its coal, and a large part of the world's manufactured goods.

Conclusion.—It is a very interesting question, why was this great development of material prosperity delayed so late? Why did it wait until the nineteenth century, and then all at once increase with such rapid strides?

It was not until modern times that the reign of law was greatly extended, and men were insured the product of their labors. Then came the union of scientists, inventors, and engineers.

So long as these three classes worked separately but little was done. There was an antagonism between them. Ancient writers went so far as to say that the invention of the arch and of the potter's wheel were beneath the dignity of a philosopher.

One of the first great men to take a different view was Francis Bacon. Macau-

lay, in his famous essay, quotes him as saying: "Philosophy is the relief of man's estate, and the endowment of the human race with new powers; increasing their pleasures and mitigating their sufferings." These noble words seem to anticipate the famous definition of civil engineering, embodied by Telford in the charter of the British Institution of Civil Engineers: "Engineering is the art of controlling the great powers of nature for the use and convenience of man."

The seed sown by Bacon was long in producing fruit. Until the laws of nature were better known, there could be no practical application of them. Towards the end of the eighteenth century a great intellectual revival took place. In literature appeared Voltaire, Rousseau, Kant, Hume, and Goethe. In pure science there came Laplace, Cavendish, Lavoisier, Linnæus, Berzelius, Priestley, Count Rumford, James Watt, and Dr. Franklin. The last three were among the earliest to bring about a union of pure and applied science. Franklin immediately applied his discovery that frictional electricity and lightning were the same to the protection of buildings by lightning-rods. Count Rumford (whose experiments on the conversion of power into heat led to the discovery of the conservatism of energy) spent a long life in contriving useful inventions.

James Watt, one of the few men who have united in themselves knowledge of abstract science, great inventive faculties, and rare mechanical skill, changed the steam-engine from a worthless rattletrap into the most useful machine ever invented by man. To do this he first discovered the science of thermodynamics, then invented the necessary appliances, and finally constructed them with his own hands. He was a very exceptional man. At the beginning of the nineteenth century there were few engineers who had received any scientific education. Now there is in the profession a great army of young men, most of them graduates of technical schools, good mathematicians, and well versed in the art of experimenting.

One of the present causes of progress is that all discoveries are published at once in technical journals and in the daily press. The publication of descriptive indexes of all scientific and engineering articles as fast as they appear is another modern contrivance.

Formerly scientific discoveries were concealed by cryptograms, printed in a dead language, and hidden in the archives of learned societies. Even so late as 1821 Oersted published his discovery of the uniformity of electricity and magnetism in Latin.

Engineering works could have been designed and useful inventions made, but they could not have been carried out without combination. Corporate organization collects the small savings of many into great sums through savings-banks, life insurance companies, etc., and uses this concentrated capital to construct the vast works of our days. This could not continue unless fair dividends were paid. Everything now has to be designed so as to pay. Time, labor, and material must be saved, and he ranks highest who can best do this. Invention has been encouraged by liberal patent laws, which secure to the inventor property in his ideas at a moderate cost.

Combination, organization, and scientific discovery, inventive ability, and engineering skill are now united.

It may be said that we have gathered together all the inventions of the nineteenth century and called them works of engineering. This is not so. Engineering covers much more than invention. It includes all works of sufficient size and intricacy to require men trained in the knowledge of the physical conditions which govern the mechanical application of the laws of nature. First comes scientific discovery, then invention, and lastly engineering. Faraday and Henry discovered the electrical laws which led to the invention of the dynamo, which was perfected by many minds. Engineering built such works as those at Niagara Falls to make it useful.

An ignorant man may invent a safety-pin, but he cannot build the Brooklyn Bridge.

The engineer-in-chief commands an army of experts, as without specialization little can be done. His is the comprehensive design, for which he alone is responsible.

Such is the evolution of engineering,

which began as a craft and has ended as a profession.

Thoughtful persons have asked, will this new civilization last, or will it go the way of its predecessors? Surely the answer is: all depends on good government, on the stability of law, order, and justice, protecting the rights of all classes. It will continue to grow with the growth of good government, prosper with its prosperity, and perish with its decay.

Engineers, SOCIETIES OF. American Society of Civil Engineers, organized 1852; American Institute of Mining Engineers, organized 1871; American Society of Mechanical Engineers, organized 1880; American Institute of Electrical Engineers, organized 1884.

English, EARL, naval officer; born in Crosswicks, N. J., Feb. 18, 1824; entered the navy Feb. 25, 1840; was actively engaged during the Mexican War on the Pacific coast in Mexico and California; also served throughout the Civil War. In 1868, when the Tycoon of Japan was defeated by the Mikado's party, he found refuge on Commander English's ship *Iroquois.* He was promoted rear-admiral in 1884; retired in 1886. He died in Washington, D. C., July 16, 1893.

English, THOMAS DUNN, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., June 29, 1819; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1839; member of the New Jersey legislature in 1863–64; and of Congress in 1891–95; is the author of *American Ballads; Book of Battle Lyrics; Ben Bolt,* etc. He died in Newark, N. J., April 1, 1902.

English, WILLIAM HAYDEN, capitalist; born in Lexington, Ind., Aug. 27, 1822; received a collegiate education and studied law; was a Democratic Representative in Congress in 1852–61; and was conspicuous there because of his opposition to the policy of his own party in the controversy over the admission of Kansas into the Union. He reported what was known as the "English bill," which provided that the question of admission under the Lecompton constitution be referred back to the people of Kansas. His report was adopted, and Kansas voted against admission under that constitution. After his retirement from Congress he engaged in various financial concerns; was candidate for Vice-President on the ticket with Gen. Winfield S. Hancock in 1880; published an historical and biographical work on the constitution of the law-makers of Indiana; and bequeathed to the Indiana Historical Society, of which he was president for many years, the funds to complete and publish his *History of Indiana.* He died in Indianapolis, Ind., Feb. 7, 1896.

English Language, a branch from the Low-German of the Teutonic or Germanic branch of the Indo-European family. It is closely related to the dialects spoken on the north shores of the German Ocean, especially with the Frisian dialect.

English Revolution, THE. When James II. attempted to establish despotism in England by destroying the constitution in Church and State, he arrayed against himself the united Church, the aristocracy, and the intelligent people of the realm. He also resolved to make the Roman Catholic the religious system of the kingdom, and sought to destroy all forms of Protestantism. He prorogued Parliament, and ruled despotically as an autocrat without it. So universal were the alarm and indignation caused by his conduct that there was a general longing for relief; and the fires of revolution burned intensely in the hearts of the people before they burst into a flame. The King's daughter Mary, who had married her cousin William, Prince of Orange, was heir to the throne of England in the absence of a male heir. When the people were ripe for revolution it was announced that James's second wife had given birth to a son (June 10, 1688). The hopes of the nation, which were centred on Mary, were grievously disappointed. The opinion was general that the alleged heir just born was a supposititious one, and not the child of the Queen. The volcano was instantly uncapped, and on June 30 (1688) leading men of the kingdom sent an invitation to William of Orange to invade England and place his wife on its throne. He went, landed at Torbay (Nov. 5) with 15,000 men, and penetrated the country. The people flocked to his standard, King James fled to France, and all England was speedily in the hands of the welcome invader.

On Feb. 13, the Convention Parliament conferred the crown of England on Will-

iam and Mary as joint sovereigns. Bancroft says of the political theory of the revolution: "The old idea of a Christian monarchy resting on the law of God was exploded, and political power sought its origin in compact. Absolute monarchy was denied to be a form of civil government. Nothing, it was held, can bind freemen to obey any government save their own agreement. Political power is a trust, and a breach of the trust dissolves the obligation to allegiance. The supreme power is the legislature, to whose guardianship it has been sacredly and unalterably delegated. By the fundamental law of property no taxes may be levied on the people but by its own consent or that of its authorized agents. These were the doctrines of the revolution, dangerous to European institutions and dear to the colonies; menacing the Old World with convulsive struggles and reforms, and establishing for America the sanctity of its own legislative bodies. Throughout the English world the right to representation could never again be separated from the power of taxation. The theory gave to vested rights in England a bulwark against the monarch; it encouraged the colonists to assert their privileges, as possessing a sanctity which tyranny only could disregard, and which could perish only by destroying allegiance itself."

Entail of Estate. A disposition of estates to certain classes of descendants in which the legal course of succession of some descendants is cut off. The earliest English law of entail is found in the statute of Westminster in 1285. In the United States this law came over with the general body of enactments known as the "common law of England." South Carolina abolished entail in 1773, Virginia in 1776, Georgia in 1777, Maryland in 1782, North Carolina in 1784. In recent years the purposes of entail are accomplished by other legal procedure. It is believed that Gardiner's Island, N. Y., is the only property in the United States now held entail by direct descendants of the grantee. See GARDINER, LION.

Enterprise, THE. The *Enterprise*, fourteen guns, was an American brig that acquired the reputation of being "lucky." She cruised for a long time off the New England coast, the terror of British provincial privateers, under Capt. Johnston Blakeley, until he was promoted to the command of the new sloop-of-war *Wasp*, when Lieut. William Burrows became her commander. On the morning of Sept. 1, 1813, she sailed from Portsmouth, N. H., in quest of British cruisers. On the morning of the 5th she discovered a British brig in a bay near Pemaquid Point, which, observing the *Enterprise*, bore down upon her in menacing attitude. Burrows accepted the challenge, cleared

THE M'CALL MEDAL.

GRAVES OF BURROWS, BLYTH, AND WATERS.

his ship for action, and, after getting a proper distance from land to have ample sea-room for conflict, he edged towards the stranger, which proved to be the British brig *Boxer*, fourteen guns, Capt. Samuel Blyth. At twenty minutes past three o'clock in the afternoon the brigs closed within half pistol-shot of each other and both vessels opened fire at the same time. The wind was light, with very little sea, and the cannonading was destructive. Ten minutes later the *Enterprise* ranged ahead of the *Boxer*, and, taking advantage of her position, she steered across the bows of her antagonist, and delivered her fire with such precision and destructive energy that, at four o'clock, the British officer in command shouted through his trumpet that he had surrendered; but his flag being nailed to the mast, it could not be lowered until the Americans should cease firing. It was found that Capt. Blyth had been cut nearly in two by an 18-pound cannon-ball. Almost at the same moment when Blyth fell on the *Boxer*, Burrows, of the *Enterprise*, was mortally wounded. So also was Midshipman Kervin Waters. Blyth was killed instantly; Burrows lived eight hours. The latter refused to be carried below until the sword of the commander of the *Boxer* was delivered to him, when he grasped it and said, "Now I am satisfied; I die contented." The command of the *Enterprise* devolved upon Lieut. E. R. McCall, of South Carolina, who conducted his part of the engagement to its close with skill. He took both vessels into Portland Harbor on the morning of the 7th. The two young commanders were buried side by side in a cemetery at Portland. Congress presented a gold medal to the nearest masculine representative of Lieutenant Burrows; and another was presented to Lieutenant McCall.

Envoy. A diplomatic or political rank inferior to that of AMBASSADOR (*q. v.*). In the diplomatic service in the United States the official designation is envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary. The representatives of the United States in the countries with which it has mutually raised its representative above the rank of envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary are officially known as ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary.

Envoys to France. Monroe was recalled from France in 1796, and CHARLES COTESWORTH PINCKNEY (*q. v.*), of South Carolina, was appointed to fill his place. On his arrival in France, late in the year, with the letter of recall and his own credentials, the Directory refused to receive him. Not only so, but, after treating him with great discourtesy, the Directory peremptorily ordered him to leave France. He withdrew to Holland (February, 1797), and there awaited further orders from home. When Mr. Adams took the chair of state, the United States had no diplo-

matic agent in France. The "French party," or Republicans, having failed to elect Jefferson President, the DIRECTORY (*q. v.*) determined to punish a people who dared to thwart their plans. In May, 1797, they issued a decree which was tantamount to a declaration of war against the United States. At about the same time President Adams, observing the perilous relations between the United States and France, called an extraordinary session of Congress to consider the matter. There had been a reaction among the people, and many leading Democrats favored war with France. A majority of the cabinet advised further negotiations, and John Marshall, a Federalist, and Elbridge Gerry, a Democrat, were appointed envoys extraordinary to join Pinckney and attempt to settle all matters in dispute. They reached France in October (1797), and sought an audience with the Directory. Their request was met by a haughty refusal, unless the envoys would first agree to pay into the exhausted French treasury a large sum of money, in the form of a loan, by the purchase of Dutch bonds wrung from that nation by the French, and a bribe to the amount of $240,000 for the private use of the five members of the Directory. The proposition came semi-officially from Talleyrand, one of the most unscrupulous politicians of the age. It was accompanied by a covert threat that if the proposition was not complied with the envoys might be ordered to leave France in twenty-four hours, and the coasts of the United States be ravaged by French cruisers from San Domino. They peremptorily refused, and Pinckney uttered, in substance, the noble words, "Millions for defence, but not one cent for tribute!" The envoys asked for their passports. They were given to the two Federalists under circumstances that amounted to their virtual expulsion, but Gerry, the Democrat, was induced to remain. He, too, was soon treated with contempt by Talleyrand and his associates, and he returned home in disgust.

Episcopacy in America. The Church and state in England worked in concert in forging fetters for the English-American colonists. The Church of England was early made a state establishment in the colony of Virginia, but elsewhere the free spirit of the people kept episcopacy at bay, for they remembered how much they had suffered at the hands of the Church of England. On the accession of George III. and the administration of the Earl of Bute, among the reforms in the colonies contemplated and proposed by the ministry was the curtailment or destruction of the Puritan and Dissenting influence in the provinces, which seemed inimical to monarchy, and to make the ritual of the Anglican Church the state mode of worship. As early as 1748 Dr. Secker, Archbishop of Canterbury, had proposed the establishment of episcopacy in America, and overtures were made to several eminent Puritan divines to accept the leadership, but they all declined it. A royalist churchman in Connecticut, in 1760, in a letter to Dr. Secker, and to the Earl of Halifax, then at the head of the board of trade and plantations, urged the necessity of providing two or three bishops for the colonies, the support of the Church, and a method for repressing the rampant republicanism of the people. "The rights of the clergy and the authority of the King," said the Bishop of London, "must stand or fall together."

The Anglican Church then had many adherents in all the colonies, who naturally desired its ascendency; but the great mass of the people looked upon that Church as an ally of the state in acts of oppression, and earnestly opposed it. They well knew that if Parliament could create dioceses and appoint bishops, they would establish tithes and crush out dissent as heresy. For years controversy in the colonies on this topic was warm, and sometimes acrimonious. Essays for and against episcopacy appeared in abundance. The Bishop of Llandaff, in a sermon preached before the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, in which he advocated the necessity of establishing episcopacy in America, heaped abuse without stint upon the colonists. "Upon the adventurers themselves," he said, "what reproach could he cast heavier than they deserve? who, with their native soil, abandoned their native manners and religion, and ere long were found, in many parts, living without remembrance or knowledge of God, without any divine worship, in dissolute wickedness and the most brutal

profligacy of manners." He charged them with having become "infidels and barbarians"; and the prelate concluded that the only remedy for the great evil was to be found in a Church establishment. His recommendations were urged with zeal by churchmen in the colonies. The Dissenters were aroused. They observed in the bishop's sermon the old persecuting spirit of the Church, and visions of Laud and the Star Chamber disturbed them. Eminent writers in America entered the lists in opposition to him. Among others, William Livingston, whose famous letter to the bishop, issued in pamphlet form, refuted the charges of that dignitary so completely that they were not repeated. The theological controversy ceased when the vital question of resistance to the oppressive power of both Church and state was brought to a final issue. The first English bishop within the domains of the American republic was SAMUEL SEABURY (*q. v.*), of Connecticut, who was consecrated by three bishops of the Scottish Episcopal Church, Nov. 14, 1784.

Efforts were early made by the English to supplant the Dutch Church as the prevailing religious organization in New York. The act of the Assembly procured by Governor Fletcher, though broad in its scope, was destined for that purpose. Under that act Trinity Church was organized, and Fletcher tried to obtain authority to appoint all the ministers, but the Assembly successfully resisted his designs. In 1695 Rev. John Miller, in a long letter to the Bishop of London on the condition of religion and morals, drew a gloomy picture of the state of society in the city of New York, and earnestly recommended as a remedy for all these social evils "to send over a bishop to the province of New York duly qualified as suffragan" to the Bishop of London, and five or six young ministers, with Bibles and prayer-books; to unite New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Rhode Island into one province; and the bishop to be appointed governor, at a salary of $7,200, his Majesty to give him the King's Farm of 30 acres, in New York, as a seat for himself and his successors. When Sir Edward Hyde (afterwards Lord Cornbury) became governor of the combined provinces of New York and New Jersey, in 1702, even violent efforts were used to make the liturgy and ritual of the Church of England the state system of worship. He denied the right of preachers or schoolmasters to exercise their functions in the province without a bishop's license; and when the corporation of New York resolved to establish a grammar-school, the Bishop of London was requested to send over a teacher. In violation of his positive instructions, the governor began a systematic persecution of all religious denominations dissenting from the practices of the Church of England. This conduct reacted disastrously to Trinity Church, which, until the province was rid of Cornbury, had a very feeble growth.

Puritan austerity had extended to a large class of intelligent free-thinkers and doubters in New England, and they felt inclined to turn towards the freer, more orderly, and dignified Church of England. The rich and polite preferred a mode of worship which seemed to bring them into sympathy with the English aristocracy, and there were many who delighted in the modest ceremonies of the church. Nor were these influences confined to laymen. There were studious and aspiring men among the ministers to whom the idea of apostolic succession had charms; and they yearned for freedom from the obstinate turbulence of stiff-necked church-members, who, in theory, were the spiritual equals of the pastors, whom, to manage, it was necessary to humor and to suit. These ideas found expression in an unexpected quarter. Timothy Cutler, a minister of learning and great ability, was rector of Yale College in 1719. To the surprise and alarm of the people of New England, Mr. Cutler, with the tutor of the college and two ministers in the neighborhood, took occasion, on Commencement Day, 1722, to avow their conversion to Episcopacy. Cutler was at once "excused" from all further service in the colege, and provision was made for all future rectors to give satisfactory evidence of "soundness of their faith in opposition to Arminian and prelatical corruptions." Weaker ones engaged in the revolt halted, but others persisted. Cutler became rector of a new Episcopal church in Boston, and the dis-

missed ministers were maintained as missionaries by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. This secession from the Church resting on the SAYBROOK PLATFORM (*q. v.*), made the ministers of Massachusetts keen-eyed in the direction of signs of defection. John Checkly (afterwards ordained an Episcopal missionary) published Leslie's *Short and Easy Method with Deists*, with an appendix by himself, in which Episcopal ordination was insisted upon as necessary to constitute a Christian minister. The authorities in Boston were offended. Checkly was tried on a charge that the publication tended "to bring into contempt and infamy the ministers of the holy Gospel established by law within his Majesty's province of Massachusetts." For this offence Checkly was found guilty and fined £50. Anglicans, Quakers, and Baptists objected to taxation for the support of the Congregational churches. Massachusetts and Connecticut partially relieved them from this necessity, but the obligation still continued for Anglicans who had no organized local church with a minister of their own. The equal rights of all religious bodies did not receive complete recognition until long after the War of Independence. See PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

Episcopal Church, REFORMED. See REFORMED EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

Epworth League, a religious society composed of the young members and friends of the Methodist Episcopal Church, founded in May, 1889. Its aim is to promote intelligent and loyal piety among its members. Its constitution provides for religious, intellectual, and social development. In 1912 it numbered 1,500 local societies, with a membership of about 60,000. President, Bishop W. A. Quayle, Oklahoma City, Okla.; general secretary, Edwin M. Randall, D.D., Chicago, Ill; treasurer, Rev. Paul C. Curnick, D.D., South Bend, Ind. The central office of the Epworth League is located at 57 Washington Street, Chicago, Ill. There is also an Epworth League in the M. E. Church, South; founded in 1891. It has 4,067 chapters, with a total membership of 145,091. The central office is located at Nashville, Tenn. The officers are: President, Bishop J. H. McCoy, D.D.; general secretary, Rev. Fitzgerald S. Parker, D.D.; assistant secretary and treasurer, Rev. J. Marvin Culbreth, D.D., Nashville, Tenn. The general organ of the League is the *Epworth Era*, published weekly by the publishing agents of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, Nashville, Tenn., and Dallas, Tex.

Equal Rights Party. In the city of New York, in 1835, there arose in the ranks of the Democratic party a combination of men opposed to all banking institutions and monopolies of every sort. A "Workingman's party" had been formed in 1829, but had become defunct, and the "Equal Rights party" was its successor. They acted with much caution and secrecy in their opposition to the powerful Democratic party, but never rose above the dignity of a faction. They made their first decided demonstration at Tammany Hall at the close of October, 1835, when an event occurred which caused them afterwards to be known as LOCO-FOCOS (*q. v.*), a name applied by the Whigs to the whole Democratic party. The faction soon became formidable, and the regulars endeavored to reconcile the irregulars by nominating their favorite for the Presidency, Richard M. Johnson, for Vice-President with Martin Van Buren.

Era of Good Feeling, in United States history, the period of 1817–23. During these years there was scarcely any antagonism manifested between the political parties, owing largely to the decline of the Federal party and to the abandonment of past issues. The War of 1812 had practically settled every question which had disturbed the parties since 1800. The inaugural speech of President JAMES MONROE (*q. v.*) in 1817 was of such a nature as to quiet the Federal minority. It treated the peculiar interests of that party with magnanimity; congratulated the country upon its universal "harmony," and predicted an increase of this harmony for the future. This good will was further augmented by a visit of President Monroe to the New England States, which had not seen a President since the days of Washington. Party feeling was forgotten, and all joined in proclaiming that an "era of good feeling" had come. In 1824 this era was unhappily terminated by the election of JOHN QUINCY ADAMS (*q. v.*), during whose ad-

ministration questions arose which resurrected party antagonisms.

Ericsson, JOHN, engineer; born in Wermeland, Sweden, July 31, 1803. He became an eminent engineer in his own country, and attained the rank of captain in the Swedish army. In 1826 he visited England with a view to the introduction of his invention of a flame engine. He engaged actively in mechanical pursuits, and made numerous inventions, notably that of artificial draft, which is still used in locomotive engines. He won the prize offered by the Manchester and Liverpool Railway for the best locomotive, making one that attained the then astonishing speed of 50 miles an hour. He invented the screw propeller for navigation, but the British admiralty being unwilling to believe in its capacity and success, Ericsson came to the United States in 1839, and resided in the city of New York or its immediate vicinity till his death. In 1841 he was engaged in the construction of the United States ship-of-war *Princeton*, to which he applied his propeller. She was the first steamship

JOHN ERICSSON.

ever built with the propelling machinery under the water-line and out of reach of shot. In 1840 he received the gold medal of the Mechanics' Institute of New York for the best model of a steam fire-engine, and constructed the first one seen in the United States. King Oscar of Sweden made him Knight of the Order of Vasa in 1852. He accomplished many things in mechanical science after he settled in New York. He constructed the *Monitor*, which fought the *Merrimac*, using T. R. TIMBY's (*q. v.*) revolving turret, thus revolutionizing the entire science of naval warfare. He died in New York City, March 8, 1889, and his remains were sent to his native land in the United States cruiser *Baltimore*.

Eric the Red, a Scandinavian navigator, who emigrated to Iceland about 982, after which he discovered Greenland, where he planted a colony. He sent out an exploring party under his son Lief, about 1000, who seems to have discovered the continent of America, and landed somewhere on the shores of Massachusetts or the southern portion of New England. See VINLAND.

Erie, Pa. It occupies the site of a French fort, called Fort de la Presque, built in 1749; was laid out as a town in 1795; incorporated as a borough in 1805; given a city charter in 1851. It was the headquarters of Commodore Perry in the War of 1812; the fleet with which he defeated the British in the battle of Put-in-Bay was built and equipped here. Pop. (1900), 52,733; (1910) 66,525. See ERIE, FORT.

Erie Canal, THE. It connects the waters of the Great Lakes with the Atlantic Ocean. It was contemplated by General Schuyler and Elkanah Watson, but was first definitely proposed by Gouverneur Morris, at about the beginning of the nineteenth century. In 1810 canal commissioners were appointed, with Gouverneur Morris at their head. In 1812 Clinton, with others, was appointed to lay the project before the national Congress, and solicit the aid of the national government. Fortunately the latter declined to extend its patronage to the great undertaking. The War of 1812–15 put the matter at rest for a while. That war made the transportation of merchandise along our sea-coasts perilous, and the commercial intercourse between seaboard cities was carried on in a larger degree by wheeled vehicles. For this purpose Conestoga wagons were used between New York and Philadelphia, and when one of these made the journey of 90 miles in three days, with passengers, it was called "the flying-machine." It has been estimated that the amount of increased expense by this method of trans-

portation of merchandise for the coast region alone would have paid the cost of a system of internal navigation from Maine to Georgia.

The want of such a system was made clear to the public mind, especially to the government would do nothing in the matter, and the State of New York resolved to construct the canal alone. Clinton was made governor in 1816, and used all his official and private influence in favor of the enterprise. He saw it begun during

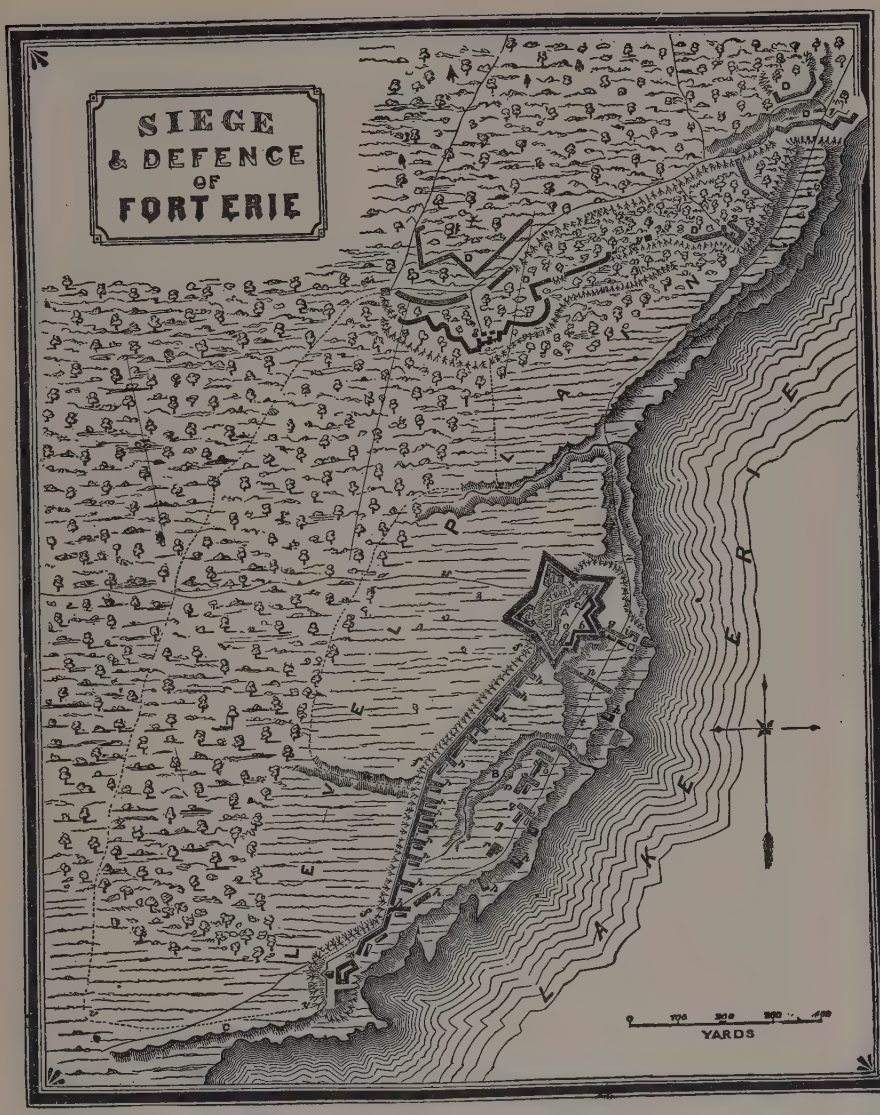
LOCKS ON THE ERIE CANAL.

population then gathering in the Western States. Then Mr. Clinton, more vigorously than ever, pressed upon the public attention the importance of constructing the projected canal. He devoted his wonderful energies to the subject, and in a memorial of the citizens of New York, prepared by him, he produced such a powerful argument in its favor that not only the people of his native State, but of other States, approved it. The national his first administration. The first excavation was made July 4, 1817, and it was completed and formally opened by him, as chief magistrate of the State, in 1825, when a grand aquatic procession from Albany proceeded to the sea, and the governor poured a keg of the water of Lake Erie into the Atlantic Ocean. The canal was constructed at a cost of $7,602,000. Untold wealth has been won for the State and the city of New York by its opera-

tions, directly and indirectly. Up to 1912 the canal had cost for construction, enlargement, and maintenance $52,540,800, and with the Oswego and Champlain canals was then being enlarged by the State to a depth of twelve feet with locks of a capacity to accommodate barges having a net tonnage capacity of 2,500 tons each. The cost of these improvements was limited to $101,000,000.

Erie, FORT, a small fortification on Lake Erie. In the summer of 1812, Black Rock, near Buffalo, was selected as a place for a dock-yard for fitting out naval vessels for Lake Erie. Lieut. Jesse D. Elliott, while on duty there, was informed of the arrival at Fort Erie, opposite, of two vessels from Detroit, both well manned and well armed and laden with valuable cargoes of peltry. They were the *Caledonia*, a vessel belonging to the Northwestern Fur Company, and the *John Adams*, taken at the surrender of Hull, with the name changed to *Detroit*. They arrived on the morning of Oct. 8 (1812), and Elliott at once conceived a plan for their capture. Timely aid offered. The same day a detachment of unarmed seamen arrived from New York. Elliott turned to the military for assistance. Lieutenant-Colonel Scott was then at Black Rock, and entered warmly into Elliott's plans. General Smyth, the commanding officer, favored them. Captain Towson, of the artillery, was detailed, with fifty men, for the service; and sailors under General Winder, at Buffalo, were ordered out, well armed. Several citizens joined the expedition, and the whole number, rank and file, was about 124 men. Two large boats were taken to the mouth of Buffalo Creek, and in these the expedition embarked at midnight. At one o'clock in the morning (Oct. 9) they left the creek, while scores of people watched anxiously on the shore for the result. The sharp crack of a pistol, the roll of musketry, followed by silence, and the moving of two dark objects down the river proclaimed that the enterprise had been successful. Joy was manifested on the shores by shouts and the waving of lanterns. The vessels and their men had been made captives in less than ten minutes. The guns at Fort Erie were brought to bear upon the vessels. A struggle for their possession ensued. The *Detroit* was finally burned, but the *Caledonia* was saved, and afterwards did good service in Perry's fleet on Lake Erie. In this brilliant affair the Americans lost one killed and five wounded. The loss of the British is not known. A shot from Fort Erie crossed the river and instantly killed Maj. William Howe Cuyler, aide to General Hull, of Watertown, N. Y. The *Caledonia* was a rich prize; her cargo was valued at $200,000.

On Aug. 4, 1814, the British, under Lieutenant-Colonel Drummond, began a siege of Fort Erie, with about 5,000 men. Drummond perceived the importance of capturing the American batteries at Black Rock and seizing or destroying the armed schooners in the lake. A force 1,200 strong, that went over to Black Rock, were repulsed by riflemen, militia, and volunteers, under Major Morgan. Meanwhile Drummond had opened fire on Fort Erie with some 24-pounders. From Aug. 7 to Aug. 14 (1814) the cannonade and bombardment was almost incessant. General Gaines had arrived on the 5th, and taken the chief command as Brown's lieutenant. On the morning of the 7th the British hurled a fearful storm of round-shot upon the American works from five of their heavy cannon. Day by day the siege went steadily on. On the 13th Drummond, having completed the mounting of all his heavy ordnance, began a bombardment, which continued through the day, and was renewed on the morning of the 14th. When the attack ceased that night, very little impression had been made on the American works. Satisfied that Drummond intended to storm the works, Gaines made disposition accordingly. At midnight an ominous silence prevailed in both camps. It was soon broken by a tremendous uproar. At two o'clock in the morning (Aug. 15) the British, 1,500 strong, under Lieutenant-Colonel Fischer, made a furious attack upon Towson's battery and the abatis, on the extreme left, between that work and the shore. They expected to find the Americans slumbering, but were mistaken. At a signal, Towson's artillerists sent forth such a continuous stream of flame from his tall battery that the British called it the "Yankee Light-house."



EXPLANATION OF THE ABOVE MAP.—A, old Fort Erie; *a*, *a*, demi-bastions; *b*, a ravelin, and *c*, *c*, block-houses. These were all built by the British previous to its capture at the beginning of July. *d*, *d*, bastions built by the Americans during the siege; *e*, *e*, a redoubt built for the security of the demi-bastions, *a*, *a*.

B, the American camp, secured on the right by the line *g*, the Douglass Battery, *i*, and Fort Erie; on the left, and in front, by the lines *f*, *f*, *f*, and batteries on the extreme right and left of them. That on the right, immediately under the letter L in the words LEVEL PLAIN, is Towson's; *h*, *h*, etc., camp traverses; *n*, main traverse; *o*, magazine traverse, covering also the headquarters of General Gaines; *p*, hospital traverse; *q*, grand parade and provost-guard traverse; *r*, General Brown's headquarters; *s*, a drain; *t*, road from Chippewa up the lake.

C, the encampment of volunteers outside of the intrenchments, who joined the army a few days before the sortie.

D, D, the British works. 1, 2, 3, their first, second, and third battery. *v*, the route of Porter, with the left column, to attack the British right flank on the 17th; *x*, the ravine, and route of Miller's command.

Mr. Lossing was indebted to the late Chief Engineer Gen. Joseph G. Totten for the manuscript map of which this is a copy.

While one assailing column, by the use of ladders, was endeavoring to capture the battery, the other, failing to penetrate the abatis, because Miller and his brave men were behind it, attempted to gain the rear of the defenders. Both columns failed. Five times they made a gallant attack, when, after fearful loss, they abandoned the enterprise. Meanwhile another British column made a desperate attack on the fort, when the exasperated Drummond ordered his men to "give the Yankees no quarter" if the fort should be taken, and had actually stationed some Indians near to assist in the execution of the savage order. He obtained partial possession of the weak fort, and ordered his men to attack the garrison with pike and bayonet. Most of the officers and many of the men received deadly wounds. No quarter was given; but very soon the officer who gave the order was killed by the side of Lieutenant Macdonough, who had asked him for quarter, but was shot dead by him. The battle raged furiously a while longer. The British held the main bastion of the fort in spite of all efforts to dislodge them. Finally, just as the Americans were about to make a more furious attack, the bastion blew up with tremendous force. A column of flame, with fragments of timber, earth, stones, and the bodies of men, rose to the height of nearly 200 feet in the air, and fell in a shower of ruins to a great distance around. This appalling explosion was followed by a galling cannonade, when the British fled to their intrenchments, leaving on the field 221 killed, 174 wounded, and 186 prisoners. The loss of the Americans was seventy killed, fifty-six wounded, and eleven missing.

RUINS OF FORT ERIE, 1860.

After the terrible explosion and the repulse of the British, both parties prepared for a renewed contest. Each was strengthened by reinforcements, but the struggle was not again begun for a month. General Brown had recovered from his wound, and was again in command of his army. The fort was closely invested by the British, but Drummond's force, lying upon low ground, was greatly weakened by typhoid fever. Hearing of this, Brown determined to make a sortie from the fort. The time appointed for its execution was Sept. 17. He resolved, he said, "to storm the batteries, destroy the cannon, and roughly handle the brigade

on duty, before those in reserve at the camp could be brought into action." Fortunately for the sallying troops, a thick fog obscured their movements as they went out, towards noon, in three divisions—one under General Proctor, another under James Miller (who had been brevetted a brigadier-general), and a third under General Ripley. Porter reached a point within a few rods of the British right wing, at near three o'clock, before the movement was suspected by his antagonist. An assault was immediately begun. The startled British on that flank fell back, and left the Americans masters of the ground. Two batteries were then stormed, and were carried after a close struggle for thirty minutes. This triumph was followed by the capture of the block-house in the rear of the batteries. The garrison were made prisoners, cannon and carriages were destroyed, and the magazine blown up. Meanwhile, General Miller had carried two other batteries and block-houses in the rear. Within forty minutes after Porter and Miller began the attack, four batteries, two block-houses, and the whole line of British intrenchments were in the hands of the Americans. Fort Erie was saved, with Buffalo, and stores on the Niagara frontier, by this successful sortie. In the space of an hour the hopes of Drummond were blasted, the fruits of the labor of fifty days were destroyed, and his force reduced by at least 1,000 men. Public honors were awarded to Brown, Porter, and Ripley. Congress presented each with a gold medal. To the chief commander (Brown), of whom it was said, "no enterprise which he undertook ever failed," the corporation of New York gave the freedom of the city in a gold box. The governor of New York (D. D. Tompkins) presented to him an elegant sword. The States of New York, Massachusetts, South Carolina, and Georgia each gave Ripley tokens of their appreciation of his services.

Erie, Lake, Battle on. Who should be masters of Lake Erie was an important question to be solved in 1813. The United States government did not fulfil its promise to Hull to provide means for securing the naval supremacy on Lake Erie. The necessity for such an attainment was so obvious before the close of 1812 that the government took vigorous action in the matter. Isaac Chauncey was in command of a little squadron on Lake Ontario late

MOUTH OF CASCADE CREEK, WHERE PERRY'S FLEET WAS BUILT.

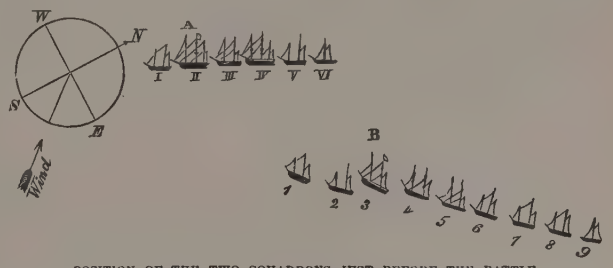
PERRY'S BATTLE FLAG.

in 1812, and Capt. Oliver Hazard Perry, a zealous young naval officer, of Rhode Island, who was in command of a flotilla of gunboats on the Newport station, offered his services on the Lakes. Chauncey desired his services, and on Feb. 17 Perry received orders from the Secretary of the Navy to report to Chauncey with all possible despatch, and to take with him to Sackett's Harbor all of the best men of the flotilla at Newport. He sent them forward, in companies of fifty, under Sailing-Masters Almy, Champlin, and Taylor. He met Chauncey at Albany, and they journeyed together in a sleigh through the then wilderness to Sackett's Harbor. In March Perry went to Presque Isle (now Erie, Pa.) to hasten the construction and equipment of a little navy there designed to co-operate with General Harrison in attempts to recover Michigan. Four vessels were speedily built at Erie, and five others were taken to that well-sheltered harbor from Black Rock, near Buffalo, where HENRY ECKFORD (*q. v.*) had converted merchant-vessels into war-ships. The vessels at Erie were constructed under the immediate supervision of Sailing-Master Daniel Dobbins, at the mouth of Cascade Creek. Early in May (1813) the three smaller vessels were launched, and on the 24th of the same month two brigs were put afloat. The whole fleet was finished on July 10, and consisted of the brig *Lawrence*, twenty guns; brig *Niagara*, twenty guns; brig *Caledonia*, three guns; schooner *Ariel*, four guns; schooner *Scorpion*, two guns and two swivels; sloop *Trippe*, one gun; schooner *Tigress*, one gun; and schooner *Porcupine*, one gun. The command of the fleet was given to Perry, and the *Lawrence*, so named in honor of the slain commander of the *Chesapeake*, was his flag-ship. But men and supplies were wanting. A British squadron on the lake seriously menaced the fleet at Erie, and Perry pleaded for materials to put his vessels in proper order to meet danger. "Think of my situation," he wrote to Chauncey—"the enemy in sight, the vessels under my command more than sufficient and ready to make sail, and yet obliged to bite my fingers with vexation for want of men."

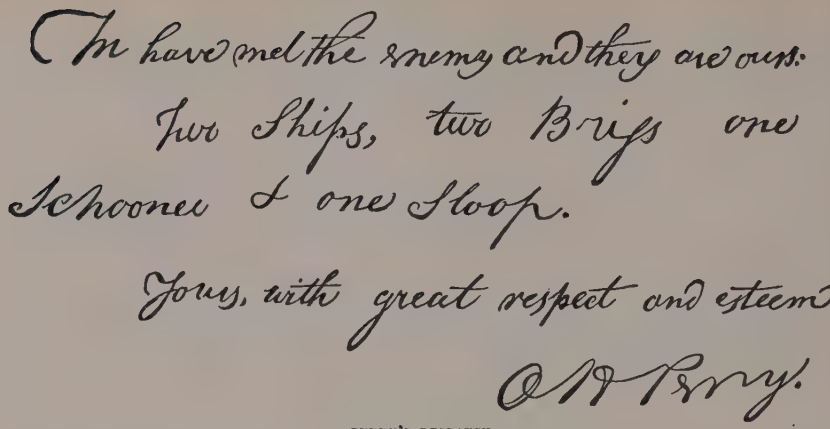
Perry, anxiously waiting for men to man his little fleet at Erie, was partially gratified by the arrival there of 100 men from Black Rock, under Captain Elliott, and early in August, 1813, he went out on the lake before he was fairly prepared for vigorous combat. On Aug. 17, when off Sandusky Bay, he fired a signal-gun for General Harrison, according to agreement. Harrison was encamped at Seneca, and late in the evening of the 19th he and his suite arrived in boats and went on board the flag-ship *Lawrence*, where arrangements were made for the fall campaign in that quarter. Harrison had about 8,000 militia, regulars and Indians, at Camp Seneca, a little more than 20 miles from the lake. While he was waiting for Harrison to get his army ready to be transported to Fort Malden, Perry cruised about the lake. On a bright morning, Sept. 10, the sentinel watching in the main-top of the *Lawrence* cried, "Sail, ho!" It announced the appearance of the British fleet, clearly seen in

the northwestern horizon. Very soon Perry's nine vessels were ready for the enemy. At the mast-head of the *Lawrence* was displayed a blue banner, with the words of Lawrence, the dying captain, in large white letters "DON'T GIVE UP THE SHIP." The two squadrons slowly approached each other. The British squadron was commanded by Com. Robert H. Barclay, who fought with Nelson at Trafalgar. His vessels were the ship *Detroit*, nineteen guns, and one pivot and two howitzers; ship *Queen Charlotte*, seventeen, and one howitzer; brig *Lady Prevost*, thirteen, and one howitzer; brig *Hunter*, ten; sloop *Little Belt*, three; and schooner *Chippewa*, one, and two swivels. The battle began at noon, at long range, the *Scorpion*, commanded by young Sailing-Master Stephen Champlin, then less than twenty-four years of age, firing the first shot on the American side. As the fleets drew nearer and nearer, hotter and hotter waxed the fight. For two hours the *Lawrence* bore the brunt of battle, until she lay upon the waters almost a total wreck—her rigging all shot away, her sails cut into shreds, her spars battered into splinters, and her guns dismounted. One mast remained, and from it streamed the national flag. The deck was a scene of dreadful carnage, and most men would have struck their flag. But Perry was hopeful in gloom. His other vessels had fought gallantly, excepting the *Niagara*, Captain Elliott, the stanchest ship in the fleet, which had kept outside, and was unhurt. As she drew near the *Lawrence*, Perry resolved to fly to her, and, renewing the fight, win the victory. Putting on the uniform of his rank, that he might properly receive Barclay as his prisoner, he took down his broad pennant and the banner with the stirring words, entered his boat, and, with four stout seamen at the oars, he started on his perilous voyage, anxiously watched by

PUT-IN-BAY—SMOKE OF BATTLE SEEN IN THE DISTANCE.



POSITION OF THE TWO SQUADRONS JUST BEFORE THE BATTLE.


We have met the enemy and they are ours:
Two Ships, two Brigs one
Schooner & one Sloop.
Yours, with great respect and esteem
O H Perry.

PERRY'S DESPATCH.

those he had left on the *Lawrence*. Perry stood upright in his boat, with the pennant and banner partly wrapped about him. Barclay, who had been badly wounded, informed of Perry's daring, and knowing the peril of the British fleet if the young commodore should reach the decks of the *Niagara*, ordered big and

OLIVERUS H. PERRY. PRINCEPS STAGNO ERIENSE
CLASSAM TOTAM CONTUDIT.
VICTA IN VENIT VIRTUS AUT FACIT
INTER CLASS. AMERI.
ET BRIT. DIE X. SEP.
MDCCCXIII.

THE PERRY MEDAL.

little guns to be brought to bear on the little boat that held the hero. The voyage lasted fifteen minutes. Bullets traversed the boat, grape-shot falling in the water near covered the seamen with spray, and oars were shivered by cannon-balls, but not a man was hurt. Perry reached the *Niagara* in safety. Hoisting his pennant over her, he dashed through the British line, and eight minutes afterwards the colors of the enemy's flag-ship were struck, all but two of the fleet surrendering. These attempted to escape, but were pursued and brought back, late in the evening, by the *Scorpion*, whose gallant commander (Champlin) had fired the *first* and *last* gun in the battle of Lake Erie. Assured of victory, Perry sat down, and, resting his naval cap on his knee, wrote to Harrison, with a pencil, on the back of a letter, the famous despatch: "We have met the enemy, and they are

ours—two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." The name of Perry was made immortal. His government thanked him, and gave him and Elliott each a gold medal. The legislature of Pennsylvania voted him thanks and a gold medal; and it gave thanks and a silver medal to each man who was engaged in the battle. The Americans lost twenty-seven killed and ninety-six wounded. The British loss was about 200 killed and 600 made prisoners. At about nine o'clock in the evening of the day of the battle, the moon shining brightly, the two squadrons weighed anchor and sailed into Put-in-Bay, not far from Sandusky, out of which the American fleet had sailed that morning. The last survivor of the battle of Lake Erie was John Norris, who died at Petersburg, Va., in January, 1879.

Ernst, OSWALD HERBERT, military officer; born in Cincinnati, O., June 27, 1842; graduated at West Point in 1864, and entered the Engineer Corps; superintendent of West Point in 1893–98; brigadier-general of volunteers, and served in the war against Spain in 1898; had command of the troops in the action of Coamo, Porto Rico; member of the Isthmian Canal and Mississippi River commissions in 1899–1906; brigadier-general U. S. A., and retired in 1906. Author of *Manual of Practical Military Engineering.*

Erskine, DAVID MONTAGUE, BARON, diplomatist; born in England in 1776; soon after 1806 was sent to the United States as British envoy. He found President Madison so exceedingly anxious for peace and good feeling between the two countries that he had written to Canning, the British minister, such letters on the subject that he was instructed to propose to the Americans a reciprocal repeal of all the prohibitory laws upon certain conditions. Those conditions were so partial towards Great Britain, requiring the Americans to submit to the rule of 1756, that they were rejected. Very soon, however, arrangements were made by which, upon the Orders in Council being repealed, the President should issue a proclamation declaring a restoration of commercial intercourse with Great Britain, but leaving all restrictive laws as against France in full force. Mr. Erskine also offered reparation for the insult and injury in the case of the CHESAPEAKE (*q. v.*), and also assured the government of the United States that Great Britain would immediately send over an envoy extraordinary, vested with power to conclude a treaty that should settle all points of dispute between the two governments. This arrangement was completed April 18, 1809. The next day the Secretary of State received a note from Erskine, saying he was authorized to declare that his Majesty's Orders in Council of January and November, 1807, would be withdrawn on June 10 next ensuing. On the same day (April 19) the President issued a proclamation declaring that trade with Great Britain might be resumed after June 10. This proclamation gave great joy in the United States. Partisan strife was hushed, and the President was toasted and feasted by leading Federalists, as a Washingtonian worthy of all confidence. In the House of Representatives, John Randolph, who lauded England for her magnanimity, offered (May 3, 1809) a resolution which declared "that the promptitude and frankness with which the President of the United States has met the overtures of the government of Great Britain towards a restoration of harmony and freer commercial intercourse between the two nations meet the approval of this House." The joy was of brief duration. Mr. Erskine was soon afterwards compelled to communicate to the President (July 31) that his government had refused to sanction his arrangement, ostensibly because the minister had exceeded his instructions, and was not authorized to make any such arrangement. Mr. Erskine was recalled. The true reason for the rejection by the British authorities of the arrangement made by Erskine probably was, that, counting upon the fatal effects of sectional strife in the Union, already so rampant in some places, the British government was encouraged to believe that the bond of union would be so weakened that a scheme then perfecting by the British ministry for destroying that Union would be successful. England having spurned the olive-branch so confidingly offered, the President of the United States issued another proclamation (Aug. 9, 1809), declaring the non-

intercourse act to be again in full force in regard to Great Britain.

Erskine, Sir William, British soldier; born in 1728; entered the English army in 1743; commanded one of the brigades at the battle of Long Island in 1776; and was second in command of Tryon's expedition to Danbury in April, 1777. In the next year he took command of the eastern district of Long Island. He died March 9, 1795.

Esopus War, The. There had been a massacre by the Indians of Dutch settlers at Esopus (now Kingston, N. Y.) in 1655. The settlers had fled to Manhattan for security, but had been persuaded by Stuyvesant to return to their farms, where they built a compact village for mutual protection. Unfortunately, some Indians, who had been helping the Dutch in their harvests in the summer of 1658, became noisy in a drunken rout, and were fired upon by the villagers. This outrage caused fearful retaliation. The Indians desolated the farms, and murdered the people in isolated houses. The Dutch put forth their strength to oppose the barbarians, and the "Esopus War" continued until 1664 intermittingly. Some Indians, taken prisoners, were sent to Curaçoa and sold as slaves. The anger of the Esopus Indians was aroused, and, in 1663, the village of Wiltwyck, as the Esopus village was called, was almost totally destroyed. Stuyvesant was there at the time, holding a conference with the Indians in the open fields, when the destructive blow fell. The houses were plundered and burned, and men, hurrying from the fields to protect their families and property, were either shot down or carried away captive. The struggle was desperate, but the white people were victorious. When the assailants were driven away, they carried off forty women and children; and in the heap of ruins which they left behind them were found the charred remains of twenty-one murdered villagers. It was the final event of violence of that war.

Esquemeling, John, author of *Buccaneers and Buccaneering in America*, which has been frequently reprinted.

Essex, The, a frigate of 860 tons, rated at thirty-two guns, but actually carried forty-six; built in Salem, Mass., in 1799. On June 26, 1812, under command of Capt. David Porter, she left Sandy Hook, N. J., on a cruise, with a flag at her masthead bearing the significant words, "Free-trade and Sailors' Rights." He soon captured several English merchant vesels, making trophy bonfires of most of them on the ocean, and their crews his prisoners. After cruising southward several weeks in disguise, capturing a prize now and then, he turned northward, and chased a fleet of English transports bearing 1,000 troops to Halifax, convoyed by a frigate and a bomb-vessel. He captured one of the transports, and a few days afterwards (Aug. 13) fell in with the British armed ship *Alert*, Capt. T. L. P. Langhorne, mounting twenty 18-pounder carronades and six smaller guns. The *Essex* was disguised as a merchantman. The *Alert* followed her for some time, and at length opened fire with three cheers from her people. Porter caused his ports to be knocked out in an instant, when his guns responded with terrible effect. It was a complete surprise. The *Alert* was so badly injured and her people were so panic-stricken that the conflict was short. In spite of the efforts of the officers, the men of the *Alert* ran below for safety. She was surrendered in a sinking condition. She was the first British naval vessel captured in the war. Nobody was killed on either vessel.

When Commodore Bainbridge was about to sail from Boston with the *Constitution* and *Hornet*, orders were sent to Captain Porter, of the *Essex*, then lying in the Delaware, to cruise in the track of the West Indiamen, and at a specified time to rendezvous at certain ports, when, if he should not fall in with the flag-ship of the squadron, he would be at liberty to follow the dictates of his own judgment. Having failed to find the *Constitution* at any appointed rendezvous, and having provided himself with funds by taking $55,000 from a British packet, Porter made sail for the Pacific Ocean around Cape Horn. While in these waters, Porter seized twelve armed British whale-ships, with an aggregate of 302 men and 107 guns. These were what he entered the Pacific Ocean for. He armed some of them, and at one time he had a fleet of nine vessels. He sent

paroled prisoners to Rio de Janeiro, and cargoes of whale-oil to the United States. On Sept. 15, 1813, while among the Galapagos Islands, he fell in with a British whaling-vessel armed with twelve guns and manned by thirty-nine men. He captured her, and found her laden with beef, pork, bread, wood, and water, articles which Porter stood greatly in need of at that time. The exploits of the *Essex* in the Pacific produced great excitement in the British navy, and the government sent out the frigate *Phœbe*, with one or two consorts, to attempt her capture. Porter heard of this from an officer who was sent into the harbor of Valparaiso, Chile, with prizes. He also learned that the Chilean authorities were becoming more friendly to the English than to the Americans. In consequence of this information, Porter resolved to go to the Marquesas Islands, refit his vessel, and return to the United States. He had captured almost every English whale-ship known to be off the coasts of Peru and Chile, and had deprived the enemy of property to the amount of $2,500,000 and 360 seamen. He had also released the American whalers from peril, and inspired the Peruvians and Chileans with the most profound respect for the American navy. Among the Marquesas Islands (at Nooaheevah) Porter became involved in hostilities with the warring natives. He had allowed his men great indulgence in port, and some of them formed strong attachments to the native women. They were so dissatisfied when he left that they became almost mutinous. He had kept his men from going on shore for three days before he weighed anchor. "The girls," says Porter in his *Journal*, "lined the beach from morning until night, and every moment importuned me to take the taboos off the men, and laughingly expressed their grief by dipping their fingers into the sea and touching their eyes, so as to let the salt-water trickle down their cheeks."

When the *Essex* was thoroughly fitted for her long voyage and for encountering enemies, she sailed (Dec. 12) with her prizes from Nooaheevah Island (which he had named Madison), and on Feb. 3, 1814, entered the harbor of Valparaiso. One of the captured vessels, which he had armed and named *Essex Junior*, cruised off the harbor as a scout, to give warning of the approach of any man-of-war. Very soon two English men-of-war were reported in the offing. They sailed into the harbor, and proved to be the *Phœbe*, thirty-six guns, Captain Hillyar, and her consort, the *Cherub*, twenty-two guns, Captain Tucker. The former mounted thirty long 18-pounders, sixteen 32-pounder carronades, and one howitzer; also six 3-pounders in her tops. Her crew consisted of 320 men

ESSEX FIGHTING PHŒBE AND CHERUB.

and boys. The *Cherub* mounted eighteen 32-pounder carronades below, with eight 24-pounder carronades and two long nines above, making a total of twenty-eight guns. Her crew numbered 180. The *Essex* at that time could muster only 225, and the *Essex Junior* only sixty. The *Essex* had forty 32-pounder carronades and

THE ESSEX AND HER PRIZES IN MASSACHUSETTS BAY, NOOAHEEVAH.

six long 12-pounders; and the *Essex Junior* had only ten 18-pounder carronades and ten short sixes. The British vessels blockaded Porter's ships. At length he determined to escape. The sails of his vessels were spread for the purpose (March 28, 1814), and both vessels started for the open sea, when a squall partially disabled the flagship, and both took shelter in a bay. There they were attacked by the *Phœbe* and *Cherub*, and one of the most desperate and sanguinary battles of the war ensued. When at last the *Essex* was a helpless wreck and on fire, and his magazine was threatened—when every officer but one was slain or disabled; when, of the 225 brave men who went into the fight on board of her, only seventy-five effective ones remained—Porter hauled down his flag. So ended the long and brilliant cruise of the *Essex*. Her gallant commander wrote to the Secretary of War from Valparaiso, "We have been unfortunate, but not disgraced." He and his companions were sent home in the *Essex Junior*, which was made a cartel-ship, and Porter was honored as the hero of the Pacific. Municipal honors were lavished upon him, and several state legislatures and the national Congress gave him thanks.

Essex Junta, THE. The course of President John Adams, who was anxious for a renomination and election, caused a fatal schism in the Federal party. He looked to the Southern States as his chief hope in the coming election; and believing McHenry and Pickering, of his cabinet, to be unpopular there, he abruptly called upon them to resign. McHenry instantly complied, but Pickering refused, when Adams dismissed him with little ceremony. This event produced much excitement. Bitter animosities were engendered, and criminations and recriminations ensued. The open war in the Federal party was waged by a few leaders, several of whom lived in the maritime county of Essex, Mass., the early home of Pickering, and on that account the irritated President called his assailants and opposers the "Essex Junta." He denounced them as slaves to British influence—some lured by monarchical proclivities and others by British gold. A pamphlet from the pen of Hamilton, whom Adams, in conversation, had denounced as a "British sympathizer," damaged the President's political prospects materially. The Republicans rejoiced at the charge of British influence. Adams's course caused a great diminution of the Federal vote, and Jefferson was elected. The opposition chanted:

"The *Federalists* are down at last,
The *Monarchists* completely cast!
The *Aristocrats* are stripped of power—
Storms o'er the *British faction* lower.
Soon we *Republicans* shall see
Columbia's sons from bondage free.
Lord, how the Federalists will stare—
A JEFFERSON in ADAMS'S chair!"
—*The Echo.*

Early in 1809, John Quincy Adams, being in Washington attending the Supreme Court, in a confidential interview with President Jefferson, assured him that a continuation of the embargo (see EMBARGO ACTS) much longer would certainly be met by forcible resistance in Massachusetts, supported by the legislature, and probably by the judiciary of the State; that if force should be resorted to to quell that resistance, it would produce a civil war, and in that event he had no doubt the leaders of the Federal party (referring to those of the old Essex Junta) would secure the co-operation of Great Britain. He declared that the object was, and had been for several years, a dissolution of the Union and the establishment of a separate confederacy. He knew from unequivocal evidence, not provable in a court of law, that in a case of civil war the aid of Great Britain to effect that purpose would be as surely resorted to as it would be indispensably necessary to the design. A rumor of such a design was alluded to, at about the same time, by De Witt Clinton, in New York, and in the Boston *Patriot*, a new administration paper, to which the Adamses, father and son, were contributors. Such a plot, if it ever existed, was confined to a few Federalist members of Congress, in consequence of the purchase of Louisiana. They had proposed to have a meeting in Boston, to which Hamilton was invited, though it was known that he was opposed to the scheme. The meeting was prevented by Hamilton's sudden and violent death. A series of articles signed "Falkland" had appeared in New England papers, in which it was argued that if Virginia, finding herself no longer able to control the national government, should secede and dissolve it, the Northern States, though thus deserted, might nevertheless be able to take care of themselves. There seem to have been no more treasonable designs among the members of the Essex Junta than in the HARTFORD CONVENTION (*q. v.*), and the designs of that body were known to have been patriotic.

Established Churches. Unlike foreign countries generally, neither the national nor State governments of the United States recognize officially any form of religious worship. There is neither a State Church nor an Established Church. Legislation, both national and State, has steadily opposed any sectarian form. The right of a citizen to worship according to the dictates of his own conscience is guaranteed by the national Constitution; the fullest toleration of forms of religious belief exists everywhere; and no legal discrimination is anywhere permitted, every religious denomination maintaining itself without support or hinderance by any legal authority.

Estaing, CHARLES HENRY THEODAT, COUNT D', naval officer; born in Auvergne, France, in 1729; guillotined in Paris, April 28, 1794; was colonel of a French

CHARLES HENRY THEODAT D'ESTAING.

regiment in 1748; brigadier-general in 1756; and served in the French fleet after 1757, joining the East India squadron under Count Lally. Made lieutenant-general in 1763 and vice-admiral in 1778, he was sent to America with a strong naval force to assist the patriots, arriving in Delaware Bay in July, 1778. As soon as his destination became known in England, a British fleet, under Admiral

Byron, was sent to follow him across the Atlantic. It did not arrive at New York until late in the season. Byron proceeded to attack the French fleet in Boston Harbor. His vessels were dispersed by a storm, and D'Estaing, his ships perfectly refitted, sailed (Nov. 1, 1778) for the West Indies, then, as between England and France, the principal seat of war. On the same day 5,000 British troops sailed from New York for the same destination, escorted by a strong squadron. The English fleet arrived first, and, joining some other vessels already there, proceeded to attack the island of St. Lucia. D'Estaing unsuccessfully tried to relieve it. Soon afterwards Byron's fleet, from the northeast coast, arrived, when D'Estaing took refuge at Martinique. Byron tried in vain to draw him into action, and then started to convoy, a part of the way, the homeward-bound West Indiamen of the mercantile marine. During his absence a detachment from Martinique captured the English island of St. Vincent. Being largely reinforced soon afterwards, D'Estaing sailed with his whole fleet and conquered the island of Grenada. Before the conquest was quite completed Byron returned, when an indecisive engagement took place, and the much-damaged British fleet put into St. Christopher's. D'Estaing then sailed (August, 1779) to escort, part of the way, the homeward-bound French West Indiamen; and, returning, engaged jointly with the American army in the siege of Savannah, but abandoned the contest before a promised victory for the allies was won. He returned to France in 1780, and in 1783 he commanded the combined fleets of France and Spain, and was made a Spanish grandee. He favored the French Revolution, and commanded the National Guards at Versailles, but falling under the suspicion of the Terrorists, he was beheaded.

Etchemin Indians. This Algonquin family, occupying the eastern part of Maine, lived, at an early period, on the Penobscot River, between the Abenakes proper and the Micmacs. They are now represented by the remnants of the Penobscots and Passamaquoddies. About one-half of them (the Penobscots) lived on islands in the Penobscot River, and the remainder (Passamaquoddies) on the western shore of Passamaquoddy Bay and on the Schoodic lakes. These remnants are mostly Roman Catholics, and have churches and schools. Their blood remains pure, for the laws of Maine will not allow them to intermarry with the white people, and they are declining in strength.

Ethan Allen, Fort, a garrisoned military post officially established 2 miles from Essex Junction and 5 miles from Burlington, Vt., Sept. 28, 1894, and named in honor of Ethan Allen, the famous leader of the Green Mountain Boys in the Revolutionary War. There are twenty-eight buildings of brick and stone, with slated roofs, including four cavalry stables, four double officers' quarters, four single officers' quarters, two double barracks, a hospital, guard-house, bakery, workshop, a water-tower 80 feet high, built of white Vermont marble, and several storehouses. The parade-ground covers 50 acres, and there is an excellent rifle range of 1,000 yards. More than $600,000 was expended in creating the post. The land for the site, which extends over 600 acres, was purchased by Dr. W. Seward Webb, Gov. U. A. Woodbury, Col. E. C. Smith, and other citizens of Vermont and presented to the government.

Etheridge, Emerson, statesman; born in Carrituck county, N. C., Sept. 28, 1819; admitted to the bar in 1840; member of Congress in 1853–57 and in 1859–61; clerk of the national House of Representatives in 1861–63. He published *Speeches in Congress.* He died in 1902.

Eulalia, Infanta, fifth child of Maria Louise Isabella, ex-Queen of Spain, born at Madrid, Feb. 12, 1864; married to Prince Antoine, son of Prince Antoine d'Orléans, Duc de Montpensier, March 6, 1886. At the invitation of the United States government she, as a representative of the Spanish government, and the Duke of Veragua, as the lineal descendant of Christopher Columbus, became guests of the nation during the Columbian celebrations and World's Exposition in 1893. Princess Eulalia arrived in the United States May 20, 1893, and left June 25. During her stay she was entertained in a manner befitting her rank.

Europe, Plan for the Peace of. See Penn, William.

Eustis, James Biddle, diplomatist; born in New Orleans, La., Aug. 27, 1834; was educated in Brookline, Mass., and in the Harvard Law School; was admitted to the bar in 1856, and practised in New Orleans till the beginning of the Civil War, when he entered the Confederate army; served as judge-advocate on the staff of General Magruder till 1862, and then on the staff of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston. When the war closed he entered the State legislature, where he served in each House. In 1876 he was elected to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy, and after the expiration of the term took a trip through Europe. Returning to the United States, he was made Professor of Civil Law in the University of Louisiana. In 1884 he was again elected to the United States Senate, and became a member of the committee on foreign relations. He was appointed minister to France in March, 1893, and had charge of the negotiations which finally secured the release of John L. Waller, ex-United States consul in Madagascar, who had been convicted of illegally communicating with the Hovas during the French campaign, and who had been sentenced to serve twenty-one years in prison. After his return to the United States, in 1897, Mr. Eustis re-entered law practice in New York. He translated *Institutes of Justinian*, and Guizot's *History of the United States*. He died in Newport, R. I., Sept. 9, 1899.

JAMES BIDDLE EUSTIS.

Eustis, William, physician; born in Cambridge, Mass., June 10, 1753; died in Boston, Feb. 6, 1825; was graduated at Harvard in 1772, and studied medicine under Dr. Joseph Warren. As a surgeon he served throughout the Revolutionary War, and was a member of the Massachusetts legislature from 1788 to 1794. He was in the governor's council two years, and was in Congress from 1800 to 1805, and from 1820 to 1823. Secretary of War from 1809 until 1812, he then resigned, for there was much fault found with his administration. In 1815 he was sent as minister to Holland, and was governor of Massachusetts in 1824, dying while in office, Feb. 6, 1825.

Eutaw Springs, a place in South Carolina, near Nelson's Ferry, on the Santee, 50 miles northwest of Charleston; the scene of a notable battle in the Revolutionary War. The principal spring, from which the locality derived its name, first bubbles up from a bed of rock marl, at the foot of a hill 20 or 30 feet in height, and, after flowing less than 60 yards, descends, rushing and foaming, into a cavern beneath a high ridge of marl, covered with alluvium and forest trees. After traversing its subterranean way some 30 rods, it reappears on the other side, where it is a broader stream, of sufficient volume to turn a mill-wheel. It flows over a smooth, rocky bed, shaded by cypress-trees, about 2 miles, when it enters the Santee. It was near this spring that a severe battle was fought, Sept. 8, 1781. Early in August, General Greene, on the High Hills of Santee, was reinforced by North Carolina troops under General Sumner; and at the close of that month he crossed the Wateree and Congaree and marched against the British camp at Orangeburg, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Stuart. Rawdon had left these troops in Stuart's charge and returned to England. Stuart, who had been joined by the garrison of Fort Ninety-six, immediately retreated, on the approach of Greene, to Eutaw Springs, 40 miles eastward, and there encamped. Greene pursued so stealthily that Stuart was not fully aware that the Americans were after him until they were close upon him, at dawn on the morning of Sept. 8, 1781.

Greene moved in two columns, the centre of the first composed of North Carolina militia, with a battalion of South Carolina militia on each flank, commanded

EUTAW SPRINGS.

respectively by Marion and Pickens. The second consisted of North Carolina regulars, led by General Sumner, on the right; an equal number of Virginians, under Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell, in the centre; and Marylanders, commanded by Col. O. H. Williams, on the left. Lee's Legion covered the right flank, and Lieutenant-Colonel Henderson's troops covered the left. Washington's cavalry and Kirkwood's Delaware troops formed a reserve, and each line had artillery in front. Skirmishing began at eight o'clock in the morning, and very soon the conflict became general and severe. The British were defeated and driven from the field with much loss. The victory was complete, and the winners spread over the British camp, eating, drinking, and plundering. Suddenly and unexpectedly the fugitives rallied and renewed the battle, and after a terrible conflict of about five hours, the Americans, who had lost heavily, were compelled to give way. But Stuart, knowing that partisan legions were not far away, felt insecure, and that night, after breaking up 1,000 muskets and destroying stores, he retreated towards Charleston, pursued early the next morning (Sept. 9) by parties who chased them far towards the sea. Although the battlefield remained with the Americans, neither party could fairly claim a victory. During the day and the pursuit the Americans lost in killed and wounded about 550 men; the British loss, including prisoners, was fully 800. Lieutenant-Colonel Washington was severely wounded in the second battle, and was made prisoner. For his good conduct on that occasion Congress presented to Greene its thanks, a gold medal, and a British standard taken in the fight. A few days after the battle, with a large number of sick soldiers, he retired with his troops to the Santee hills and encamped. There his militia left him. He remained until the middle of November, when he marched his army into the low country, where he might obtain an abundance of food. The necessities of Greene's army had compelled him to go to the hills. The troops were too much exhausted to continue active operations. They were barefooted and half naked. He had no army hospital stores, very little salt, and his ammunition was very low.

Evacuation Day, the anniversary of the evacuation of New York City by the British, Nov. 25, 1783.

Evangelical Alliance, THE, an association of Christians belonging to the Evangelical Churches. It was established Aug. 19–23, 1846, in London by a world's convention of delegates from Christian denominations. Its aim is to promote religious liberty, Christian union and co-operation, and it sprang from a general desire for united efforts among Protestants. Its purpose is not towards organic union, nor church confederation, but simply towards a free Christian union of members from churches who hold fundamentally the same faith. It claims no legislative nor official authority that could in any way affect the internal workings of any denomination, but relies solely on the moral power of love and truth. When it was organized there were 800 Christians present, including Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Independents, Methodists, Baptists, Lutherans, Reformed, Moravians, etc., from England,

the United States, Germany, France, Switzerland, and other countries. At that time the following articles were adopted:

"1. The divine inspiration, authority, and sufficiency of the Holy Scriptures.

"2. The right and duty of private judgment in the interpretation of the Holy Scriptures.

"3. The unity of the Godhead, and the Trinity of the persons therein.

"4. The utter depravity of human nature in consequence of the Fall.

"5. The incarnation of the Son of God, his work of atonement for the sins of mankind, and his mediatorial intercession and reign.

"6. The justification of the sinner by faith alone.

"7. The work of the Holy Spirit in the conversion and sanctification of the sinner.

"8. The immortality of the soul, the resurrection of the body, the judgment of the world by our Lord Jesus Christ, with the eternal blessedness of the righteous and the eternal punishment of the wicked.

"9. The divine institution of the Christian ministry, and the obligation and perpetuity of the ordinances of baptism and the Lord's Supper."

In 1867 the American branch of the Alliance was founded, and adopted the above articles, with the following qualifying preamble:

"Resolved, That in forming an Evangelical Alliance for the United States in co-operative union with other branches of the Alliance, we have no intention to give rise to a new denomination; or to effect an amalgamation of churches, except in the way of facilitating personal Christian intercourse and a mutual good understanding; or to interfere in any way whatever with the internal affairs of the various denominations; but simply to bring individual Christians into closer fellowship and co-operation, on the basis of the spiritual union which already exists in the vital relations of Christ to the members of his body in all ages and countries.

"Resolved, That in the same spirit we propose no new creed; but, taking broad, historical, and evangelical catholic ground, we solemnly reaffirm and profess our faith in all the doctrines of the inspired Word of God, and in the consensus of doctrines as held by all true Christians from the beginning. And we do more especially affirm our belief in the divine-human person and atoning work of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, as the only and sufficient source of salvation, as the heart and soul of Christianity, and as the centre of all true Christian union and fellowship.

"Resolved, That, with this explanation, and in the spirit of a just Christian liberality in regard to the minor differences of theological schools and religious denominations, we also adopt, as a summary of the consensus of the various Evangelical Confessions of Faith, the Articles and Explanatory Statement set forth and agreed on by the Evangelical Alliance at its formation in London, 1846, and approved by the separate European organizations; which articles are as follows, etc."

The Evangelical Alliance since its origin has extended its work throughout the Protestant world. It has no central authority and appears in active operation only from time to time, as it meets in general conference. The character of these conferences are purely religious, lasting from ten to twelve days. The time is spent in prayer and praise, in discussions of the great religious questions of the day, and in brotherly communion. Nine international meetings have thus far been held. The first occurred in London, 1851; the second in Paris, 1855; the third in Berlin, 1857; the fourth in Geneva, 1861; the fifth in Amsterdam, 1867; the sixth in New York, 1873; the seventh in Basel, Switzerland, 1879; the eighth in Denmark, 1884; and the ninth in Italy, 1891. The United States branch held a national conference in Chicago, 1893, in connection with the Columbian World's Exposition. The week of prayer, beginning with the first Sunday in each year, and now generally observed throughout Protestant Christendom, is one of the most important results obtained by the Alliance.

Evangelical Association, a religious organization established in the United States in 1800 by the Rev. Jacob Albright.

This movement was the outcome of a work of reform begun in 1790 by Albright, who held that the German churches in the eastern part of Pennsylvania were corrupt. In 1816 the first general conference of the body was held in Union county, Pa. In doctrine the Evangelical Association is Armenian; in mode of worship and form of government it agrees with the Methodist Episcopal Church, of which Albright, during his early life, was a member. The ministers, who are itinerant, are divided into deacons and elders; the presiding elders and bishops are elected for four years, the former by individual conferences, the latter by the general conference, which is the highest legislative body in the church. In 1910 there were two bodies, the original Evangelical Association and the United Evangelical Church, which resulted from a division in 1891. Together they had 2,738 organizations, 174,780 members, 1,495 ministers, 2,509 church edifices, and 2,549 Sunday-schools with 32,113 officers and teachers and 214,998 scholars. The first-mentioned body was the strongest numerically, 104,898.

Evans, Clement Anselm, lawyer; born in Georgia; graduated at the law school of Augusta, Ga.; was in the Georgia Senate in 1859; served in the Confederate army through the Civil War, and was an acting major-general in the Army of Northern Virginia at the time of Lee's surrender. He is the author of *Military History of Georgia;* and editor of *Confederate Military History* (12 volumes).

Evans, Frederick William, author; born in Bromyard or Leominster, England, June 9, 1808; removed to the United States in 1820; joined the United Society of Believers (Shakers) at Mt. Lebanon, N. Y., in 1830; chief works: *Compendium of the Origin, History, and Doctrines of Shakers; Autobiography of a Shaker;* and *Shaker Communism.* He died in Mt. Lebanon, N. Y., March 6, 1893.

Evans, Sir George de Lacy, military officer; born in Moig, Ireland, in 1787; entered the British army at the age of twenty years; served in the East Indies, and early in 1814 came to the United States with the rank of brevet-colonel. He was engaged in the Battle of Bladensburg (*q. v.*) in August, and led the troops that entered Washington, D. C., and destroyed the public buildings there. He was with General Ross in the expedition against Baltimore in September, and was near that general when he fell. Evans was also with Pakenham in the attempt to capture New Orleans. He was wounded in the battle that occurred below that city. Returning to Europe, he served under Wellington. Afterwards he was elected to Parliament, and was subsequently promoted to lieutenant-general. In the latter capacity he served in the war in the Crimea in 1854. He died in London, Jan. 2, 1870.

Evans, Henry Clay, legislator; born in Juniata county, Pa., June 18, 1843; served in a Wisconsin regiment in the Civil War; became a manufacturer in Chattanooga and twice mayor of that city; member of Congress in 1889–91; claimed election as governor of Tennessee, but the legislature gave the office to his Democratic opponent, 1894; Commissioner of Pensions, 1897–1902; and consul-general at London, 1902–05.

Evans, Hugh Davey, author; born in Baltimore, Md., April 26, 1792; began the practice of law in Baltimore in 1815; and became widely known as a constitutional lawyer. His publications include *Theophilus Americanus* (an American adaptation, with additions, of Canon Wordsworth's *Theophilus Anglicanus*); *Essay on the Episcopate of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States,* etc. He died in Baltimore, Md., July 16, 1868.

Evans, Oliver, inventor; born in Newport, Del., in 1775; was of Welsh descent, and was grandson of Evan Evans, D.D., the first Episcopal minister in Philadelphia. Apprenticed to a wheelwright, he early displayed his inventive genius. At the age of twenty-two years he had invented a most useful machine for making card-teeth. In 1786–87 he obtained from the legislatures of Maryland and Pennsylvania the exclusive right to use his improvements in flour-mills. He constructed a steam-carriage in 1799, which led to the invention of the locomotive engine. His steam-engine was the first constructed on the high-pressure principle. In 1803–04 he made the first steam dredging-machine used in America, to which

he gave the name of "Oracter Amphibolis," arranged for propulsion, either on land or water. He died in New York City, April 21, 1819.

Evans, Robley Dunglison, naval officer; born in Virginia; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1863; took part in the attack on Fort Fisher, where he was severely wounded; was in command of the *Yorktown* in the harbor of Valparaiso, Chile, in 1891, during a period of strained relations between the United States and Chile; commanded the battle-ship *Iowa* and took an active part in the destruction of Cervera's fleet; promoted rear-admiral in 1901; commanded the fleet of sixteen battle-ships that made the tour of the world in 1907–08; retired Aug. 18, 1908; died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 3, 1912. Author of *A Sailor's Log* and many magazine articles.

Evans, Thomas Williams, dentist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 23, 1823; in 1848 went to Paris to attend to the teeth of President Louis Napoleon. His home was the refuge of the Empress Eugénie from the mob on the night of Sept. 4, 1870. He died in Paris, Nov. 14, 1896. Dr. Evans bequeathed all of his fortune to establish a museum and institute in Philadelphia. Costly litigation had cut the fortune down to $1,250,000 by 1910.

EVARTS, WILLIAM MAXWELL

Evarts, William Maxwell, statesman; born in Boston, Mass., Feb. 6, 1818; graduated at Yale College in 1837; studied law, and was admitted to the bar, in the city of New York, in 1840, where he afterwards resided and practised his profession. He was one of the ablest and most eloquent members of the bar, and held a foremost rank in his profession for many years. He was the leading counsel employed for the defence of President Johnson in his impeachment before the Senate in 1868. President Hayes appointed Mr. Evarts Secretary of State in March, 1877; and in January, 1885, he was elected United States Senator, holding the seat till 1891. He died in New York City, Feb. 28, 1901.

WILLIAM MAXWELL EVARTS.

Bimetallism.—In 1881, after the conclusion of his term of service in the cabinet, he went to Paris as delegate of the United States to the International Monetary Conference. He there made the following plea for the employment of both gold and silver in the money of the world:

The question now put to us is—as is obvious everywhere in the progress of this conference—the question now put to us is, "Why is it that in your wealth, your strength, your manifold and flexible energies and opportunities in the conflicts and competitions of the system of nations represented here, why is it that you feel concern for mischiefs which carry no special suffering or menace to you or anxiety as to the methods of their cure, when you are so free-handed as to the methods and resorts at your choice? Why should these evils that have grown out of a short-sighted and uncircumspect policy, as you (the United States) think; why should you so persistently call upon all the nations to unite, and put yourselves, as it were, on the same footing of danger and solicitude with them?" The answer on our part is simple and honest. It needs no ingenuity

to frame it, and it asks no special courtesy or confidence on your part to believe it. It is our interest in the commerce of the world, and we consider no question of the money of the world alien from that interest. Why should we not feel an interest, and an urgent interest, in the commerce of the world? We are seated on a continent, so to speak, of our own, as distinguished from Asia and Europe. We are nearer to Europe and to Asia than either is to the other, and if there is to be a great battle between the Eastern and Western commerce and a public and solemn war declared between the silver of the East and the gold of the West, who so likely to make the profit of the interchange between those moneys, and necessarily, therefore, of the interchange between the commodities that those moneys master?

But there is another striking position of our country, not geographical. It is that we more than all other nations, perhaps first of all nations, in the history of the development of commerce, that our nation holds, in either hand, the great products of staples, of raw material, and the great, the manifold, the varied products of skilled industry, which we have developed and organized, and in which we contest with Europe the markets of the world. We propose to furnish the products of our agriculture, which feed in so great share the laborers of Europe and the machinery of Europe, as inexorable in its demands as the laborers; and we propose also to deal with the world at large in the skilled products of industry in every form applied to those raw materials, and prosecuted under the advantages of their home production. We contemplate no possibility of taking place with the less civilized or poorer nations, to sit at the feet of the more civilized and richer nations. We have no desire to place ourselves, on the side of skilled industry, in the position of a superior nation to inferiors, though they may depend on us for this supply. We occupy, quite as much as in our geographical position, in this aspect towards the different forms of wealth, production, and industry, an entirely catholic and free position, having no interest but the great interest that all nations, as far as money is concerned, should not be embarrassed in trading with us, and that we, so far as money is concerned, should not be obstructed in selling our raw products to the skilled nations of Europe, or the products of our industry to the consumers in less developed nations. Besides this equilibrium of selfishness, which makes the general good our good, we are free from any bias in the matter of the production of the precious metals, trivial as that is in comparison with the immense and fervid march of commerce. We produce the two metals equally. Out of the same prolific silver mines even, the same ore gives us 55 per cent. of silver and 45 of gold. How could you imagine a nation in regard to its production of the precious metals more indifferent as to which is made the master of the world? It is a bad tyranny that we resist. It is the possession of freedom and of power in the commerce of the world by the service of both these metals, in place of the mastery of either, that we advocate.

It is hardly necessary to recapitulate the principal duties of money, but they have always been of a nature that presented itself in a double aspect. From the time that money needed to be used in any considerable volume, and for any considerable debts among the advancing nations of the world, there never has been a time in which the money for man's use did not present itself in reference to its service and duties in two aspects. One is to deal with the petty transactions of every-day and neighborhood use, where the smallness of transactions required money susceptible of easy division; the other for a transfer in larger transactions required money to be used in the mass and with a collective force, money that was capable of easy multiplication and of easy management in aggregate values. But, besides that, there soon came to be a use of money between the distant parts of one country and between distant countries, and so an opportunity for disparity in the treatment of money in these opposing aspects, with no longer a common sovereignty that could adjust them one to the other. In the progress, so rapid, so vast, so wide, of the interchange of the products and industries of the world, there came to intrude itself more and more necessarily and familiarly, the elements

of distance in space and remoteness of dates of beginning and closing transactions. These developments of commerce alone embarrassed both of these moneys in the discharge of their double duty, were there no exposure to discord between themselves. But long ago this ceased to be the limit of the trouble. The actual service of intrinsic money in the transaction of the petty traffic and the great commerce of the world, in providing for its own transfer from place to place, within a nation, or from country to country, across the boundaries or across the seas, made it impossible for the volume of both the metals that the bounty of nature could yield to the urgent labor of man to perform the task. Every form and device of secondary money, of representative money, which the wit of man could compass, and which could maintain its verity as money by its relation to the intrinsic money of the world, was brought in to relieve the precious metals from the burden under which, unaided, they must have succumbed. All these forms, whether the bills of exchange to run between country and country, or of notes or checks at home, or of paper money—all are but forms of credit. While, then, they relieve intrinsic money from the intolerable burden of actually carrying the transactions of the world, they burdened it, so to speak, with moral obligations which it must discharge. All this vast expanse of credit in the developed commerce of the world rests finally upon the intrinsic money of the world, and if you would have fixity, unity, and permanence in the credit operations of the world there must be fixity, unity, and permanence in all the intrinsic money of the world upon which that credit rests. This credit is, almost without a figure, a vast globe, and this service of the precious metals to sustain it is that of an Atlas, upon whom the whole fabric rests. The strength of both arms, nerved by a united impulse of heart and will, is indispensable; neither can be spared. Consequently, if there should be any considerable failure in their force, or any waste of it by antagonism between the metals making up the intrinsic money of the world, the credit of the world is deprived of what nature in supplying the two precious metals and human wisdom in regulating them, together, are competent to supply for its maintenance.

Now, there are but two logical methods in which this disorder between gold and silver, this depreciation of their general and combined functions, this struggle between them, can be put an end to. One is to admit, as the intrinsic money of the world, only one metallic basis, and to drive out, extirpate, as a barbarism, as an anachronism, as a robber and a fraud, the other metal, that, grown old in the service and feeble in its strength, is no more a help, but a hinderance and a marplot. That is a task that might be proposed to the voluntary action of nations, and, if the monometallic proposition be the true one, that is the logical course to which the nations we represent ought to resort, unless they take the only other logical alternative—that is, to make one money out of the two metals, to have no two standards or kinds of money, but one money, adapted in its multiples and divisions to the united functions of the two precious metals.

I have said that these two are the only logical methods. There is another method, and that is, in despair of making one money out of the two metals, to make two moneys out of them. This project is not to discard either from the service of mankind, but to separate them and so mark them as that they shall not occupy the same regions, but divide the world between them. For the working of this scheme it is proposed that in some fashion a partition shall be made among nations, or sets of nations, and a struggle for the metals be set on foot to reach an equilibrium or alternating triumph, or undergo such fluctuations or vicissitudes, or enjoy such a degree of permanence as fortune, out of the chaos, may offer to mankind. This scheme might well be defined as harmonious discord and organized disorder. But this is nothing but a conclusion that although there is an intolerable evil, it is not within the compass of human wisdom, or human strength, or human courage, to attempt to remedy. This conclusion would leave things to take care of themselves. This notion found expression in the sentiments declared by some of the powers at the

conference of 1878. The hopeful expectation that was then indulged, that things would take care of themselves, has not been realized. Experience since has shown an aggravation of the mischief, a continued and widening extension of its pressure, and produced another appeal to the wisdom and courage of the nations to redress it, under which this conference has been convened.

But there is, confessedly, a great difficulty in arranging this partition of money among the nations. I will not enlarge upon that difficulty; it has already been sufficiently pointed out. It is inherent and ineradicable. Its terms cannot be expressed by its champions. Sometimes it is spoken of as a division between the Asiatic and European nations; sometimes as a division between the rich nations and the poor nations; sometimes as a division between the civilized and the less civilized nations. There seems to have been an easy confidence that these groups could be satisfactorily arranged for a reasonable equality in this battle of the precious metals. But I have been puzzled to know, and no one has distinctly stated, where the United States were to be arrayed. No one has ventured to determine whether they were to be counted as a rich nation or as a poor nation; whether as an Asiatic or a European nation; whether as a civilized nation or an uncivilized nation. Yet, I think it would be no vain assumption on the part of the United States to feel that any settlement of the money questions of the world that leaves us out, and our interest in them, and our wisdom about them, will not be the decree of an ecumenical council, or establish articles of faith that can be enforced against the whole world. The notion seems to be that the nations that sit above the salt are to be served with gold, and those that sit below the salt are to be served with silver. But who is to keep us in our seats? Who is to guard against an interruption of the feast by a struggle on the part of those who sit below the salt to be served with gold, or of those above the salt to be served with silver? This project purports to have neither wisdom nor courage, neither reason nor force, behind it. It is a mere fashion of speech for saying that we cannot by human will, by the power or the polity of nations, redress the mischief, but that we must leave the question to work itself out in discord, in dishonor, in disorder, in disaster.

This brings us fairly to consider how great the task is which is proposed for reason and for law to accomplish. How much is there wanting in the properties of these two metals, how much is missing from the already existing state of feeling, of habit, of the wishes and the wisdom of the world at large, and in the common-sense of mankind as exhibited in history or shown to-day, that stands in the way of the common use of the two precious metals to provide the common necessity of one money for the commerce of the world? The quarrel with nature seems to be with its perverse division of the necessary functions of money between the two precious metals. In their regret that nature has furnished us silver and gold, with the excellent properties of each, instead of one abundant, yet not redundant, metal that would have served all purposes, the monometallists strive to correct this perversity of nature by using only the not abundant gold and discarding the not redundant silver. Well, I do not know but one might imagine a metal, a single metal, that would combine all the advantages which these two metals in concert have hitherto offered to mankind. It may be within the range of imagination to conceive of a metal that would grow small in bulk when you wanted it to aggregate values, and grow large when you wanted to divide it into minute values. Yet, as I think, the mere statement, to the common apprehension of mankind, describes what we should call a perpetual miracle, and not an order of nature. Now, if such a metal is a mere figment of the imagination, if no such metal with these incompatible qualities is found *in rerum natura*, how are we going to dispense in our actual money with that fundamental, inexorable requirement of intrinsic money, a physical capability of multiplication and of division to serve these opposite uses? Why not then accept the reason, accept the duty of treating these two metals in which combined nature has done the ut-

most for this special need of man, by supplying the *consensus* of positive law, that single *nexus* between them, that fixity of ratio by which they two shall be one money at all times and everywhere; by which silver, when its multiplication becomes burdensome and unmanageable, loses itself in the greater value of gold; and gold, when its division becomes too minute and trivial, breaks into pieces of silver. What nature, then, by every possible concurrence of utility has joined together let no man put asunder. It is a foolish speculation whether *in rerum natura* a metal might have been contrived combining these two opposing qualities. Let us accept the pious philosophy of the French bishop, as to the great gift of the strawberry—"Doubtless God Almighty might have made a better fruit than the strawberry, but, doubtless, He has not."

This brings us to the essential idea which lies at the bottom of this effort at unity of money for the nations, the capacity of law to deal with the simple task of establishing a fixed ratio between the metals, so that their multiplication and division should make but a single scale. This, Mr. Pirmez would have us understand, would prove an ineffectual struggle of positive law against the law of nature. It is thus he denounces the attempt at a practical *nexus* between these metals by reason, which could not be supplied by the physical properties of matter. To me it seems to require no more than law and reason and the wit of man can readily supply, and have constantly supplied, in innumerable instances, and it should not be wanting here. The reason of man must either, in this instance, take the full bounties of nature and Providence, or must reject them, as the gross and ignorant neglect all the other faculties that are accorded to human effort and to human progress by the beneficence of God. Bring this matter to the narrowest limits. Here is a gap to be filled. Shall we supply it? Will you insist upon what is called one standard and have two moneys, or will you insist upon two standards with the result of one money? But one money is the object. All question of standards, one or two, is but a form and mode by which we may reach what we desire, one money. I insist, and challenge a refutation, that at bottom the theory of a gold standard is the theory of two moneys. It is the theory of discord between the metals. It is the theory of using one to buy the other, and robbing the exchange of commodities of what it requires to the utmost, the double strength, the double service of the two metals to buy and sell, not one another, but the commodities of the world.

But it is said that this pretence that law can regulate the metals in their uses as money involves a fundamental error in this, that money is itself a commodity and that law cannot regulate the ratio of the two metals as money any more than apportion values between other commodities. Well, silver and gold as they come from the mine no doubt are commodities. There might be imagined a metal that, besides having all the qualities which make it useful to men for money, might also miss all the qualities that would make it useful for anything else. You might have a metal suitable in all physical properties of gold and silver that was neither splendid for ornament, nor malleable, nor ductile for use; you might have a gold that did not glitter to the eyes, and a silver that would not serve to the use. In such case the confusion between gold and silver money, and gold and silver in their marketable uses, would be avoided. But, as matter of fact, besides the good qualities which benign nature has infused into these metals for our service as money, they have, as well, the properties which make them valuable in vulgar use. These latter uses, no doubt, in the infancy of mankind, directed attention to the recondite properties which fitted them for the institution of money, which later ages were fully to understand.

Although, then, the precious metals, in their qualities as metals, may remain commodities, whenever the act of the law, finding in their properties the necessary aptitudes, decrees their consecration to the public service as money, it decrees that they shall never after, in that quality of money, be commodities. In the very conception of money it is distinguished from all exchangeable, barterable commodities in this, that the law has set it apart, by the imprint of coinage, to be

the servant of the state and of the world in its use as money, and to abstain from all commixture, as a commodity, with the other commodities of the world. Wherever and howsoever this ideal of money fails to be real, it is because the law is either inefficient, within its jurisdiction, which is its disgrace, or because its jurisdiction is limited territorially, and because its vigor fails beyond the boundaries. In the latter case, I agree, silver or gold, in the shape of the coinage of one country or another, may become merchandise to be bought and sold, in other countries, as a mere money metal. Manifestly these exposures to demonetization, beyond the boundaries, because the legal force, which has made the metal money, stops with the boundaries, is the main cause of the mischiefs in the monetary system of the world which need redress. The cause understood, the cure is obvious. It is to carry, by some form of *consensus* among governments, the legal relations between the two metals, in their employment as money, beyond the boundaries of separate systems of coinage. These legal relations between the metals once fixed, no important evasions of it would be possible, and no serious disturbance of it could arise from diversities of coinage. It is for this result and by this means that we are striving.

But law, it is said, is inadequate in its strength, in its capabilities, in its vigilance, in its authority, to accomplish so great, so benign a result. It was accomplished up to the year 1870 by even the informal concurrence among the nations which till then subsisted. The spirit of the present age has led to manifold international applications of positive law on other subjects than money, while there is no subject to which its application is so important, or, within limits, so easy as money. For want of this *consensus*, the necessary conception of money, the institution of money, the consecration of money, is defeated, *pro tanto*, when any portion of the money loses its prerogative and incommunicable function of buying and selling all, and becomes purchasable or vendible. Whenever any portion of the money which should be used as the solvent for the exchange of commodities turns into a commodity, it thereby not only diminishes the force and volume of money, but adds to the weight and volume of exchangeable commodities. It is as little a condition of health, and may lead to as great calamities, as if the fevered blood should burn the tissues of the vital channels through which it circulates, or as if the coats of the stomach should turn to digesting themselves.

To me it seems certain that the nations must contemplate either the employment of the two metals as intrinsic money of the world upon a fixed, efficient concord and co-operation between them, or their surrender to perpetual struggle, aggravating itself at every triumph of one over the other, and finally ending in that calamity which overtakes, sooner or later, those who care not to use the bounties of nature according to the gift and responsibility of reason. I can see nothing valuable in the treatment of this subject which would leave the broken leash which so long held these metals to be repaired by chance, or the contest to be kept up at the expense of that unity, concord, common advantage, and general progress among nations which is the ideal and the hope, the pride and the enjoyment of the age in which we live.

Mr. Pirmez, however, would have us understand that this simple law of fixing the ratio between the metals, to be observed among concurring nations, although this *consensus* should include all the nations most engaged in the interchanges of the world, would be powerless because it would be opposed to the law of nature. The law of nature, no doubt, has made two metals, but, according to the best inspection of them by science and common-sense, the law of nature has made them as little diverse as possible compatibly with their best use as money. I agree that there may be foolish laws. There may be laws theoretically wise, but which, by the lawgiver not computing the difficulties to be overcome, or the repugnances that will resist their execution, are unwise for the time and the circumstances to which they are applied. I believe, as Mr. Pirmez does, that an ill-matched struggle between arbitrary decree and the firm principles of human nature will result in the overthrow of the law. But that doctrine, at bottom, if you are to apply it without regard to

the very law and without measuring the actual repugnance and resistance it has to meet, is simply impugning civilization for having fought with nature as it has done from the beginning. We had some years ago a revenue law in the United States, called forth by the exigencies of war expenditure, by which we undertook to exact a tax of $2 a gallon on whiskey, yet whiskey was sold all over the United States, tax paid, at $1.60 a gallon. This was a case of miscalculation of how far authority could go against a natural appetite and a national taste. When we reduced the tax to 60 cents on the gallon, the law triumphed over this opposition of appetite and cupidity and produced an immense revenue to the treasury. It is the old puzzle, how to reconcile the law of nature, that abhorred a vacuum, with its ceasing to operate beyond 33 feet in height. This was solved by the wise accommodation between philosophy and fact, that nature abhorred a vacuum, to be sure, but only abhorred it to a certain extent. As I have said, the informal, the unconscious, the merely historical and traditionary *consensus* of mankind made and maintained an equilibrium between the metals among the nations up to 1870. With more vigorous aid from positive law, that "written reason," which, Mr. Pirmez says, is all the law there ever is or can be, I cannot but anticipate the suppression of the discord and struggle between the moneys of the world which now trouble commerce.

Everett, Alexander Hill, diplomatist; born in Boston, March 19, 1792; graduated at Harvard in 1806; studied law with John Q. Adams; and in 1809 accompanied him to St. Petersburg as *attaché* to the American legation, to which he became secretary in 1815. He became *chargé d'affaires* at Brussels in 1818; in 1825–29 was minister to Spain; and from 1845 until his death was American commissioner in China. His publications include *Europe, or a General Survey of the Political Situation of the Principal Powers, with Conjectures on their Future Prospects* (1821); *New Ideas on Population* (1822); *America*, etc. (1827). He died in Canton, China, June 29, 1847.

EVERETT, EDWARD

Everett, Edward, statesman; born in Dorchester, Mass., April 11, 1794; brother of the preceding; graduated at Harvard in 1811; and was ordained pastor of the Brattle Street (Boston) Unitarian Church in February, 1814. He was chosen Professor of Greek in Harvard University in 1815, and took the chair on his return from Europe in 1819. Mr. Everett was in Congress from 1825 to 1835; governor of Massachusetts from 1836 to 1840; minister to England from 1841 to 1845; president of Harvard from 1846 to 1849; and succeeded Daniel Webster as Secretary of State in November, 1852. He was in the United States Senate from March, 1853, until May, 1854, when he retired to private life on account of feeble health. He took great interest in the efforts of the women of the United States to raise money to purchase Mount Vernon. He wrote and spoke much, and by his efforts procured a large amount of money, and the estate was purchased. He was nominated for the Vice-Presidency of the United States in 1860 by the Constitutional Union party. Mr. Everett was a rare scholar and finished orator, and was one of the early editors of the *North American Review*. He died in Boston, Jan. 15, 1865.

Oration at Gettysburg.—The following is his oration at the dedication of the National Cemetery, on the Gettysburg battle-field, on Nov. 19, 1863:

Standing beneath this serene sky, overlooking these broad fields now reposing from the labors of the waning year, the mighty Alleghanies dimly towering before us, the graves of our brethren beneath our feet, it is with hesitation that I raise my poor voice to break the eloquent silence of God and nature. But the duty to which you have called me must be performed; grant me, I pray you, your indulgence and your sympathy.

It was appointed by law in Athens that the obsequies of the citizens who fell in battle should be performed at the pub-

EDWARD EVERETT.

lic expense, and in the most honorable manner. Their bones were carefully gathered up from the funeral pyre where their bodies were consumed, and brought home to the city. There, for three days before the interment, they lay in state, beneath tents of honor, to receive the votive offerings of friends and relatives—flowers, weapons, precious ornaments, painted vases, wonders of art, which, after 2,000 years, adorn the museums of modern Europe—the last tributes of surviving affection. Ten coffins of funeral cypress received the honorable deposit, one for each of the tribes of the city, and an eleventh in memory of the unrecognized, but not, therefore, unhonored, dead, and of those whose remains could not be recovered. On the fourth day the mournful procession was formed; mothers, wives, sisters, daughters, led the way, and to them it was permitted, by the simplicity of ancient manners, to utter aloud their lamentations for the beloved and the lost; the male relatives and friends of the deceased followed; citizens and strangers closed the train. Thus marshalled, they moved to the place of interment in that famous Ceramicus, the most beautiful suburb of Athens, which had been adorned by Cimon, the son of Miltiades, with walks and foun-

tains and columns—whose groves were filled with altars, shrines, and temples—whose gardens were kept forever green by the streams from the neighboring hills, and shaded with the trees sacred to Minerva and coeval with the foundations of the city—whose circuit enclosed

> "the olive grove of Academe,
> . . . Plato's retirement, where the Attic bird
> Trilled his thick-warbled note the summer long,"

whose pathways gleamed with the monuments of the illustrious dead, the work of the most consummate masters that ever gave life to marble. There, beneath the overarching plane-trees, upon a lofty stage erected for the purpose, it was ordained that a funeral oration should be pronounced by some citizen of Athens, in the presence of the assembled multitude.

Such were the tokens of respect required to be paid at Athens to the memory of those who had fallen in the cause of their country. For those alone who fell at Marathon a peculiar honor was reserved. As the battle fought upon that immortal field was distinguished from all others in Grecian history for its influence over the fortunes of Hellas—as it depended upon the event of that day whether Greece should live, a glory and a light to all coming time, or should expire, like the meteor of a moment—so the honors awarded to its martyr-heroes were such as were bestowed by Athens on no other occasion. They alone, of all her sons, were entombed upon the spot which they had rendered famous. Their names were inscribed upon ten pillars erected upon the monumental tumulus which covered their ashes (where, after 600 years, they were read by the traveller Pausanias), and although the columns, beneath the hand of time and barbaric violence, have long since disappeared, the venerable mound still marks the spot where they fought and fell—

> "That battle-field where Persia's victim-horde
> First bowed beneath the brunt of Hellas' sword."

And shall I, fellow-citizens, who, after an interval of twenty-three centuries, a youthful pilgrim from the world unknown to ancient Greece, have wandered over that illustrious plain, ready to put off the shoes from my feet, as one that stands on holy ground—who have gazed with respectful emotion on the mound which still protects the dust of those who rolled back the tide of Persian invasion, and rescued the land of popular liberty, of letters, and of arts, from the ruthless foe—stand unmoved over the graves of our dear brethren, who so lately, on three of these all important days which decided a nation's history—days on whose issue it depended whether this august republican Union, founded by some of the wisest statesmen that ever lived, cemented with the blood of some of the purest patriots that ever died, should perish or endure—rolled back the tide of an invasion, not less unprovoked, not less ruthless, than that which came to plant the dark banner of Asiatic despotism and slavery on the free soil of Greece? Heaven forbid! And could I prove so insensible to every prompting of patriotic duty and affection, not only would you, fellow-citizens, gathered many of you from distant States, who have come to take part in these pious offices of gratitude—you respected fathers, brethren, matrons, sisters, who surround me—cry out for shame, but the forms of brave and patriotic men who fill these honored graves would heave with indignation beneath the sod.

We have assembled, friends, fellow-citizens, at the invitation of the executive of the central State of Pennsylvania, seconded by the governors of seventeen other loyal States of the Union, to pay the last tribute of respect to the brave men who, in the hard-fought battles of the first, second, and third days of July last, laid down their lives for the country on these hillsides and the plains before us, and whose remains have been gathered into the cemetery which we consecrate this day. As my eye ranges over the fields whose sods were so lately moistened by the blood of gallant and loyal men, I feel, as never before, how truly it was said of old that it is sweet and becoming to die for one's country. I feel, as never before, how justly from the dawn of history to the present time men have paid the homage of their gratitude and admiration to the memory of those who nobly sacrificed their lives that their

fellow-men may live in safety and in honor. And if this tribute were ever due, to whom could it be more justly paid than to those whose last resting-place we this day commend to the blessing of Heaven and of men?

For consider, my friends, what would have been the consequences to the country, to yourselves, and to all you hold dear, if those who sleep beneath our feet, and their gallant comrades who survive to serve their country on other fields of danger, had failed in their duty on those memorable days. Consider what, at this moment, would be the condition of the United States if that noble Army of the Potomac, instead of gallantly and for the second time beating back the tide of invasion from Maryland and Pennsylvania had been itself driven from these well-contested heights, thrown back in confusion on Baltimore, or trampled down, discomfited, scattered to the four winds. What, in that sad event, would have been the fate of the Monumental City, of Harrisburg, of Philadelphia, of Washington, the capital of the Union, each and every one of which would have lain at the mercy of the enemy, accordingly as it might have pleased him, spurred by passion, flushed with victory, and confident of continued success, to direct his course?

For this we must bear in mind—it is one of the great lessons of the war, indeed of every war—that it is impossible for a people without military organization, inhabiting the cities, towns, and villages of an open country, including, of course, the natural proportion of non-combatants of every sex and of every age, to withstand the inroads of a veteran army. What defence can be made by the inhabitants of villages mostly built of wood, of cities unprotected by walls, nay, by a population of men, however high-toned and resolute, whose aged parents demand their care, whose wives and children are clustering about them, against the charge of the war-horse whose neck is clothed with thunder—against flying artillery and batteries of rifled cannon planted on every commanding eminence—against the onset of trained veterans led by skilful chiefs?

No, my friends, army must be met by army, battery by battery, squadron by squadron; and the shock of organized thousands must be encountered by the firm breasts and valiant arms of other thousands, as well organized and as skilfully led. It is no reproach, therefore, to the unarmed population of the country to say that we owe it to the brave men who sleep in their beds of honor before us, and to their gallant surviving associates, not merely that your fertile fields, my friends of Pennsylvania and Maryland, were redeemed from the presence of the invader, but that your beautiful capitals were not given up to the threatened plunder, perhaps laid in ashes, Washington seized by the enemy, and a blow struck at the heart of the nation.

Who that hears me has forgotten the thrill of joy that ran through the country on the 4th of July—auspicious day for the glorious tidings, and rendered still more so by the simultaneous fall of Vicksburg—when the telegraph flashed through the land the assurance from the President of the United States that the Army of the Potomac, under General Meade, had again smitten the invader? Sure I am that with the ascriptions of praise that rose to Heaven from twenty million of freemen, with the acknowledgments that breathed from patriotic lips throughout the length and breadth of America, to the surviving officers and men who had rendered the country this inestimable service, there beat in every loyal bosom a throb of tender and sorrowful gratitude to the martyrs who had fallen on the sternly contested field.

Let a nation's fervent thanks make some amends for the toils and sufferings of those who survive. Would that the heartfelt tribute could penetrate these honored graves!

In order that we may comprehend, to their full extent, our obligations to the martyrs and surviving heroes of the Army of the Potomac, let us contemplate for a few moments the train of events which culminated in the battles of the first days of July. Of this stupendous rebellion, planned, as its originators boast, more than thirty years ago, matured and prepared for during an entire generation, finally commenced because for the first time since the adoption of the Constitution, an election of President had been effected

without the votes of the South (which retained, however, the control of the two other branches of the government), the occupation of the national capital, with the seizure of the public archives and of the treaties with foreign powers, was an essential feature. This was, in substance, within my personal knowledge, admitted, in the winter of 1860–61, by one of the most influential leaders of the rebellion; and it was fondly thought that this object could be effected by a bold and sudden movement on the 4th of March, 1861. There is abundant proof, also, that a darker project was contemplated, if not by the responsible chiefs of the rebellion, yet by nameless ruffians, willing to play a subsidiary and murderous part in the treasonable drama. It was accordingly maintained by the rebel emissaries in England, in the circles to which they found access, that the new American minister ought not, when he arrived, to be received as the envoy of the United States, inasmuch as before that time Washington would be captured, and the capital of the nation and the archives and muniments of the government would be in the possession of the Confederates. In full accordance also with this threat, it was declared by the rebel Secretary of War, at Montgomery, in the presence of his chief and of his colleagues, and of 5,000 hearers, while the tidings of the assault on Sumter were travelling over the wires on that fatal 12th of April, 1861, that before the end of May "the flag which then flaunted the breeze," as he expressed it, "would float over the dome of the Capitol at Washington."

At the time this threat was made the rebellion was confined to the cotton-growing States, and it was well understood by them that the only hope of drawing any of the other slave-holding States into the conspiracy was in bringing about a conflict of arms, and "firing the heart of the South" by the effusion of blood. This was declared by the Charleston press to be the object for which Sumter was to be assaulted; and the emissaries sent from Richmond, to urge on the unhallowed work, gave the promise, that, with the first drop of blood that should be shed, Virginia would place herself by the side of South Carolina.

In pursuance of this original plan of the leaders of the rebellion, the capture of Washington has been continually had in view, not merely for the sake of its public buildings, as the capital of the Confederacy, but as the necessary preliminary to the absorption of the border States, and for the moral effect in the eyes of Europe of possessing the metropolis of the Union.

I allude to these facts, not perhaps enough borne in mind, as a sufficient refutation of the pretence, on the part of the rebels, that the war is one of self-defence, waged for the right of self-government. It is in reality a war originally levied by ambitious men in the cotton-growing States, for the purpose of drawing the slave-holding border States into the vortex of the conspiracy, first by sympathy—which in the case of southeastern Virginia, North Carolina, part of Tennessee, and Arkansas, succeeded—and then by force, and for the purpose of subjugation, Maryland, western Virginia, Kentucky, eastern Tennessee, Missouri; and it is a most extraordinary fact, considering the clamors of the rebel chiefs on the subject of invasion, that not a soldier of the United States has entered the States last named, except to defend their Union-loving inhabitants from the armies and guerillas of the rebels.

In conformity with these designs on the city of Washington, and notwithstanding the disastrous results of the invasion of 1862, it was determined by the rebel government last summer to resume the offensive in that direction. Unable to force the passage of the Rappahannock, where General Hooker, notwithstanding the reverse at Chancellorsville, in May, was strongly posted, the Confederate general resorted to strategy. He had two objects in view. The first was by a rapid movement northward, and by manœuvring with a portion of his army on the east side of the Blue Ridge, to tempt Hooker from his base of operations, thus leading him to uncover the approaches to Washington, to throw it open to a raid by Stuart's cavalry, and to enable Lee himself to cross the Potomac in the neighborhood of Poolesville and thus fall upon the capital. This plan of operations was wholly frustrated. The design of the rebel general was promptly discovered

by General Hooker, and, moving with great rapidity from Fredericksburg, he preserved unbroken the inner line, and stationed the various corps of his army at all the points protecting the approach to Washington, from Centerville up to Leesburg. From this vantage ground the rebel general in vain attempted to draw him. In the mean time, by the vigorous operation of Pleasonton's cavalry, the cavalry of Stuart, though greatly superior in numbers, was so crippled as to be disabled from performing the part assigned it in the campaign. In this manner General Lee's first object, namely, the defeat of Hooker's army on the south of the Potomac, and a direct march on Washington, was baffled.

The second part of the Confederate plan, which is supposed to have been undertaken in opposition to the views of General Lee, was to turn the demonstration northward into a real invasion of Maryland and Pennsylvania, in the hope that, in this way, General Hooker would be drawn to a distance from the capital, and that some opportunity would occur of taking him at a disadvantage, and, after defeating his army, of making a descent upon Baltimore and Washington. This part of General Lee's plan, which was substantially the repetition of that of 1862, was not less signally defeated, with what honor to the arms of the Union the heights on which we are this day assembled will forever attest.

Much time had been uselessly consumed by the rebel general in his unavailing attempts to outmanœuvre General Hooker. Although General Lee broke up from Fredericksburg on June 3, it was not till the 24th that the main body of his army entered Maryland. Instead of crossing the Potomac, as he had intended, east of the Blue Ridge, he was compelled to do it at Sheppardstown and Williamsport, thus materially deranging his entire plan of campaign north of the river. Stuart, who had been sent with his cavalry to the east of the Blue Ridge to guard the passes of the mountains, to mask the movements of Lee, and to harass the Union general in crossing the river, having been very severely handled by Pleasonton at Beverly Ford, Aldie, and Upperville, instead of being able to retard General Hooker's advance, was driven himself away from his connection with the army of Lee, and was cut off for a fortnight from all communications with it—a circumstance to which General Lee in his report alludes more than once with evident displeasure. Let us now rapidly glance at the incidents of the eventful campaign:

A detachment from Ewell's corps, under Jenkins, had penetrated on June 15 as far as Chambersburg. This movement was intended at first merely as a demonstration, and as a marauding expedition for supplies. It had, however, the salutary effect of alarming the country; and vigorous preparations were made not only by the general government, but here in Pennsylvania and in the sister States, to repel the inroad. After two days passed at Chambersburg, Jenkins, anxious for his communications with Ewell, fell back with his plunder to Hagerstown. Here he remained for several days, and then, having swept the recesses of the Cumberland Valley, came down upon the eastern flank of the South Mountain, and pushed his marauding parties as far as Waynesboro. On the 22d the remainder of Ewell's corps crossed the river and moved up the valley. They were followed on the 24th by Longstreet and Hill, who crossed at Williamsport and Sheppardstown and, pushing up the valley, encamped at Chambersburg on the 27th. In this way the whole rebel army, estimated at 90,000 infantry, upward of 10,000 cavalry, and 4,000 or 5,000 artillery, making a total of 105,000 of all arms, was concentrated in Pennsylvania.

Up to this time no report of Hooker's movements had been received by General Lee, who, having been deprived of his cavalry, had no means of obtaining information. Rightly judging, however, that no time would be lost by the Union army in the pursuit, in order to detain it on the eastern side of the mountains in Maryland and Pennsylvania, and thus preserving his communications by the way of Williamsport, he had, before his own arrival at Chambersburg, directed Ewell to send detachments from his corps to Carlisle and York. The latter detachment, under Early, passed through this place on June 26. You need not, fellow-

citizens of Gettysburg, that I should recall to you those moments of alarm and distress, precursors as they were of the more trying scenes which were so soon to follow.

As soon as General Hooker perceived that the advance of the Confederates into the Cumberland Valley was not a mere feint to draw him away from Washington, he moved rapidly in pursuit. Attempts, as we have seen, were made to harass and retard his passage across the Potomac. These attempts were not only altogether unsuccessful, but were so unskilfully made as to place the entire Federal army between the cavalry of Stuart and the army of Lee. While the latter was massed in the Cumberland Valley, Stuart was east of the mountains, with Hooker's army between, and Gregg's cavalry in close pursuit. Stuart was, accordingly, compelled to force a march northward, which was destitute of strategical character, and which deprived his chief of all means of obtaining intelligence.

Not a moment had been lost by General Hooker in the pursuit of Lee. The day after the rebel army entered Maryland, the Union army crossed the Potomac, at Edward's Ferry, and by the 28th of June lay between Harper's Ferry and Frederick. The force of the enemy on that day was partly at Chambersburg, and partly moving on the Cashtown road in the direction of Gettysburg, while the detachments from Ewell's corps, of which mention has been made, had reached the Susquehanna, opposite Harrisburg and Columbia. That a great battle must soon be fought no one could doubt; but in the apparent, and perhaps real, absence of plan on the part of Lee, it was impossible to foretell the precise scene of the encounter. Wherever fought, consequences the most momentous hung upon the result.

In this critical and anxious state of affairs, General Hooker was relieved, and General Meade was summoned to the chief command of the army. It appears to my unmilitary judgment to reflect the highest credit upon him, upon his predecessor, and upon the corps commanders of the Army of the Potomac, that a change could take place in the chief command of so large a force on the eve of a general battle—the various corps necessarily moving on lines somewhat divergent, and all in ignorance of the enemy's intended point of concentration—and that not an hour's hesitation should ensue in the advance of any portion of the entire army.

Having assumed the chief command on the 28th, General Meade directed his left wing, under Reynolds, upon Emmettsburg, and his right upon New Windsor, leaving General French, with 11,000 men, to protect the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and convoy the public property from Harper's Ferry to Washington. Buford's cavalry was then at this place, and Kilpatrick's at Hanover, where he encountered and defeated the rear of Stuart's cavalry, who was roving the country in search of the main army of Lee. On the rebel side, Hill had reached Fayetteville, on the Cashtown road, on the 28th, and was followed on the same road by Longstreet, on the 29th. The eastern side of the mountain, as seen from Gettysburg, was lighted up at night by the camp-fires of the enemy's advance, and the country swamped with his foraging parties. It was now too evident to be questioned that the thunder-cloud, so long gathering in blackness, would soon burst on some part of the devoted vicinity of Gettysburg.

June 30 was a day of important preparations. At half-past eleven o'clock in the morning General Buford passed through Gettysburg upon a reconnoissance in force, with his cavalry, upon the Chambersburg road. The information obtained by him was immediately communicated to General Reynolds, who was, in consequence, directed to occupy Gettysburg. That gallant officer accordingly, with the 1st Corps, marched from Emmettsburg to within 6 or 7 miles of this place, and encamped on the right bank of Marsh's Creek. Our right wing, meantime, was moved to Manchester. On the same day the corps of Hill and Longstreet were pushed still farther forward on the Chambersburg road, and distributed in the vicinity of Marsh's Creek, while a reconnoissance was made by the Confederate General Petigru up to a very short distance from this place. Thus at nightfall on June 30 the greater part of the

rebel force was concentrated in the immediate vicinity of two corps of the Union army, the former refreshed by two days passed in comparative repose and deliberate preparations for the encounter, the latter separated by a march of one or two days from their supporting corps, and doubtful at what precise point they were to expect an attack.

And now the momentous day, a day to be forever remembered in the annals of the country, arrived. Early in the morning of July 1 the conflict began. I need not say that it would be impossible for me to comprise, within the limits of the hour, such a narrative as would do anything like full justice to the all-important events of these three great days, or to the merit of the brave officers and men of every rank, of every arm of the service, and of every loyal State, who bore their part in the tremendous struggle—alike those who nobly sacrificed their lives for their country, and those who survive, many of them scarred with honorable wounds, the objects of our admiration and gratitude. The astonishingly minute, accurate, and graphic accounts contained in the journals of the day, prepared from personal observation by reporters who witnessed the scenes and often shared the perils which they describe, and the highly valuable "notes" of Professor Jacobs, of the university in this place, to which I am greatly indebted, will abundantly supply the deficiency of my necessarily too condensed statement.

General Reynolds, on arriving at Gettysburg in the morning of the 1st, found Buford with his cavalry warmly engaged with the enemy, whom he held most gallantly in check. Hastening himself to the front, General Reynolds directed his men to be moved over the fields from the Emmettsburg road, in front of McMillan's and Dr. Schumucker's under cover of the Seminary Ridge. Without a moment's hesitation, he attacked the enemy, at the same time sending orders to the 11th Corps (General Howard's) to advance as promptly as possible. General Reynolds immediately found himself engaged with a force which greatly outnumbered his own, and had scarcely made his dispositions for the action when he fell, mortally wounded. at the head of his advance. The command of the 1st Corps devolved on General Doubleday, and that of the field on General Howard, who arrived at 11.30 with Schurz's and Barlow's divisions of the 11th Corps, the latter of whom received a severe wound. Thus strengthened, the advantage of the battle was for some time on our side. The attacks of the rebels were vigorously repulsed by Wadsworth's division of the 1st Corps, and a large number of prisoners, including General Archer, were captured. At length, however, the continued reinforcement of the Confederates from the main body in the neighborhood, and by the divisions of Rhodes and Early, coming down by separate lines from Heidlersberg and taking post on our extreme right, turned the fortunes on the day. Our army, after contesting the ground for five hours, was obliged to yield to the enemy, whose force outnumbered them two to one; and towards the close of the afternoon General Howard deemed it prudent to withdraw the two corps to the heights where we are now assembled. The greater part of the 1st Corps passed through the outskirts of the town, and reached the hill without serious loss or molestation. The 11th Corps and portions of the 1st, not being aware that the enemy had already entered the town from the north, attempted to force their way through Washington and Baltimore streets, which, in the crowd and confusion of the scene, they did, with a heavy loss in prisoners.

General Howard was not unprepared for this turn in the fortunes of the day. He had in the course of the morning caused Cemetery Hill to be occupied by General Steinwehr with the 2d Division of the 11th Corps. About the time of the withdrawal of our troops to the hill General Hancock arrived, having been sent by General Meade, on hearing of the death of Reynolds, to assume the command of the field until he himself could reach the front. In conjunction with General Howard, General Hancock immediately proceeded to post troops and to repel an attack on our right flank. This attack was feebly made and promptly repulsed. At nightfall our troops on the hill, who had so gallantly sustained themselves during the toil and peril of the day, were cheered by the arrival of Gen-

eral Slocum with the 12th Corps and of General Sickles with a part of the 3d.

Such was the fortune of the first day, commencing with decided success to our arms, followed by a check, but ending in the occupation of this all-important position. To you, fellow-citizens of Gettysburg, I need not attempt to portray the anxieties of the ensuing night. Witnessing as you have done with sorrow the withdrawal of our army through your streets, with a considerable loss of prisoners—mourning as you did over the brave men who had fallen, shocked with the widespread desolation around you, of which the wanton burning of the Harman House had given the signal—ignorant of the near approach of General Meade, you passed the weary hours of the night in painful expectation.

Long before the dawn of July 2 the new commander-in-chief had reached the ever-memorable field of service and glory. Having received intelligence of the events in progress, and informed by the reports of Generals Hancock and Howard of the favorable character of the position, he determined to give battle to the enemy at this point. He accordingly directed the remaining corps of the army to concentrate at Gettysburg with all possible expedition, and breaking up his headquarters at Taneytown at 10 P.M., he arrived at the front at one o'clock in the morning of July 2. Few were the moments given to sleep during the rapid watches of that brief midsummer's night, by officers or men, though half of our troops were exhausted by the conflict of the day, and the residue wearied by the forced marches which had brought them to the rescue. The full moon, veiled by thin clouds, shone down that night on a strangely unwonted scene. The silence of the graveyard was broken by the heavy tramp of armed men, by the neigh of the war-horse, the harsh rattle of the wheels of artillery hurrying to their stations, and all the indescribable tumult of preparation. The various corps of the army, as they arrived, were moved to their positions, on the spot where we are assembled and the ridges that extend southeast and southwest; batteries were planted and breastworks thrown up. The 2d and 5th Corps, with the rest of the 3d, had reached the ground by 7 A.M.; but it was not till two o'clock in the afternoon that Sedgwick arrived with the 6th Corps. He had marched 34 miles since nine o'clock of the evening before. It was only on his arrival that the Union army approached an equality of numbers with that of the rebels, who were posted upon the opposite and parallel ridge, distant from a mile to a mile and a half, overlapping our position on either wing, and probably exceeding by 10,000 the army of General Meade.

And here I cannot but remark on the Providential inaction of the rebel army. Had the contest been renewed by it at daylight on July 2, with the 1st and 11th Corps exhausted by the battle and the retreat, the 3d and 12th weary from their forced march, and the 2d, 5th, and 6th not yet arrived, nothing but a miracle could have saved the army from a great disaster. Instead of this, the day dawned, the sun rose, the cool hours of the morning passed, the forenoon and a considerable part of the afternoon wore away, without the slightest aggressive movement on the part of the enemy. Thus time was given for half of our forces to arrive and take their place in the lines, while the rest of the army enjoyed a much-needed half-day's repose.

At length, between three and four o'clock in the afternoon, the work of death began. A signal-gun from the hostile batteries was followed by a tremendous cannonade along the rebel lines, and this by a heavy advance of infantry, brigade after brigade, commencing on the enemy's right against the left of our army, and so onward to the left centre. A forward movement of General Sickles, to gain a commanding position from which to repel the rebel attack, drew upon him a destructive fire from the enemy's batteries, and a furious assault from Longstreet's and Hill's advancing troops. After a brave resistance on the part of his corps, he was forced back, himself falling severely wounded. This was the critical moment of the second day, but the 5th and a part of the 6th Corps, with portions of the 1st and 2d, were promptly brought to the support of the 3d. The struggle was fierce and murderous, but by sunset our success was decisive, and the enemy was driven back

in confusion. The most important service was rendered towards the close of the day, in the memorable advance between Round Top and Little Round Top, by General Crawford's division of the 5th Corps, consisting of two brigades of the Pennsylvania Reserves, of which one company was from this town and neighborhood. The rebel force was driven back with great loss in killed and prisoners. At eight o'clock in the evening a desperate attempt was made by the enemy to storm the position of the 11th Corps on Cemetery Hill; but here, too, after a terrible conflict, he was repulsed with immense loss. Ewell, on our extreme right, which had been weakened by the withdrawal of the troops sent over to support our left, had succeeded in gaining a foothold within a portion of our lines, near Spangler's Spring. This was the only advantage obtained by the rebels to compensate them for the disasters of the day, and of this, as we shall see, they were soon deprived.

Such was the result of the second act of this eventful drama—a day hard fought, and at one moment anxious, but, with the exception of the slight reverse just named, crowned with dearly earned but uniform success to our arms, auspicious of a glorious termination of the final struggle. On these good omens the night fell.

In the course of the night General Geary returned to his position on the right, from which he had hastened the day before to strengthen the 3d Corps. He immediately engaged the enemy, and, after a sharp and decisive action, drove them out of our lines, recovering the ground which had been lost on the preceding day. A spirited contest was kept up all the morning on this part of the line; but General Geary, reinforced by Wheaton's brigade of the 6th Corps, maintained his position, and inflicted very severe losses on the rebels.

Such was the cheering commencement of the third day's work, and with it ended all serious attempts of the enemy on our right. As on the preceding day, his efforts were now mainly directed against our left centre and left wing. From eleven till half-past one o'clock all was still, a solemn pause of preparation, as if both armies were nerving themselves for the supreme effort. At length the awful silence, more terrible than the wildest tumult of battle, was broken by the roar of 250 pieces of artillery from the opposite ridges, joining in a cannonade of unsurpassed violence — the rebel batteries along two-thirds of their line pouring their fire upon Cemetery Hill and the centre and left wing of our army. Having attempted in this way for two hours, but without success, to shake the steadiness of our lines, the enemy rallied his forces for a last grand assault. Their attack was principally directed against the position of our 2d Corps. Successive lines of rebel infantry moved forward with equal spirit and steadiness from their cover on the wooded crest of Seminary Ridge, crossing the intervening plain, and, supported right and left by their choicest brigades, charged furiously up to our batteries. Our own brave troops of the 2d Corps, supported by Doubleday's division and Stannard's brigade of the 1st, received the shock with firmness; the ground on both sides was long and fiercely contested, and was covered with the killed and the wounded; the tide of battle flowed and ebbed across the plain, till, after "a determined and gallant struggle," as it is pronounced by General Lee, the rebel advance, consisting of two-thirds of Hill's corps and the whole of Longstreet's, including Pickett's division, the *élite* of his corps, which had not yet been under fire, and was now depended upon to decide the fortune of this last eventful day, was driven back with prodigious slaughter, discomfited and broken. While these events were in progress at our left centre, the enemy was driven, with considerable loss of prisoners, from the strong position on our extreme left, from which he was annoying our forces on Little Round Top. In the terrific assault on our centre Generals Hancock and Gibbon were wounded. In the rebel army, Generals Armistead, Kemper, Petigru, and Trimble were wounded, the first named mortally, the latter also made prisoner; General Garnett was killed, and 3,500 officers and men made prisoners.

These were the expiring agonies of the three days' conflict, and with them the battle ceased. It was fought by the Union army with courage and skill, from the first cavalry skirmish on Wednesday morn-

ing to the fearful rout of the enemy on Friday afternoon, by every arm and every rank of the service, by officers and men, by cavalry, artillery, and infantry. The superiority of numbers was with the enemy, who were led by the ablest commanders in their service; and if the Union force had the advantage of a strong position, the Confederates had the advantages of choosing the time and place, the prestige of former victories over the Army of the Potomac, and of the success of the first day. Victory does not always fall to the lot of those who deserve it, but that so decisive a triumph, under circumstances like these, was gained by our troops I would ascribe, under Providence, to that spirit of exalted patriotism that animated them and a consciousness that they were fighting in a righteous cause.

All hope of defeating our army, and securing what General Lee calls "the valuable results" of such an achievement having vanished, he thought only of rescuing from destruction the remains of his shattered forces. In killed, wounded, and missing he had, as far as can be ascertained, suffered a loss of about 37,000 men—rather more than one-third of the army with which he is supposed to have marched into Pennsylvania. Perceiving that his only safety was in rapid retreat, he commenced withdrawing his troops at daybreak on the 4th, throwing up field-works in front of our left, which, assuming the appearance of a new position, were intended probably to protect the rear of his army in their retreat. That day—sad celebration of the 4th of July for the army of Americans—was passed by him in hurrying off his trains. By nightfall the main army was in full retreat on the Cashtown and Fairfield roads, and it moved with such precipitation that, short as the nights were, by daylight the following morning, notwithstanding the heavy rain, the rear-guard had left its position. The struggle of the last two days resembled in many respects the battle of Waterloo; and if, on the evening of the third day, General Meade, like the Duke of Wellington, had had the assistance of a powerful auxiliary army to take up the pursuit, the rout of the rebels would have been as complete as that of Napoleon.

Owing to the circumstance just named, the intentions of the enemy were not apparent on the 4th. The moment his retreat was discovered, the following morning, he was pursued by our cavalry on the Cashtown road and through the Emmettsburg and Monterey passes, and by Sedgwick's corps on the Fairfield road; his rear-guard was briskly attacked at Fairfield; a great number of wagons and ambulances were captured in the passes of the mountains; the country swarmed with his stragglers, and his wounded were literally emptied from the vehicles containing them into the farm-houses on the road. General Lee, in his report, makes repeated mention of the Union prisoners whom he conveyed into Virginia, somewhat overstating their number. He states also that "such of his wounded as were in a condition to be removed" were forwarded to Williamsport. He does not mention that the number of his wounded which were not removed, and left to the Christian care of the victors, was 7,540, not one of whom failed of any attention which it was possible under the circumstances of the case to afford them; not one of whom, certainly, has been put upon Libby prison fare, lingering death by starvation. Heaven forbid, however, that we should claim any merit for the exercise of common humanity!

Under the protection of the mountain ridge, whose narrow passes are easily held, even by a retreating army, General Lee reached Williamsport in safety, and took up a strong position opposite to that place. General Meade necessarily pursued with the main army, by a flank movement, through Middletown, Turner's Pass having been secured by General French. Passing through the South Mountain, the Union army came up with that of the rebels on the 12th, and found it securely posted on the heights of Marsh Run. The position was reconnoitred, and preparation made for an attack on the 13th. The depth of the river, swollen by the recent rains, authorized the expectation that the enemy would be brought to a general engagement the following day. An advance was accordingly made by General Meade on the morning of the 14th; but it was soon found that the rebels had escaped in the

night with such haste that Ewell's corps forded the river where the water was breast high. The cavalry, which had rendered the most important services during the three days, and in harassing the enemy's retreat, was now sent in pursuit, and captured two guns and a large number of prisoners. In an action which took place at Falling River, General Petigru was mortally wounded. General Meade, in further pursuit of the rebels, crossed the Potomac at Berlin. Thus again covering the approaches to Washington, he compelled the enemy to pass the Blue Ridge at one of the upper gaps; and in about six weeks from the commencement of the campaign General Lee found himself again on the south side of the Rappahannock, with the probable loss of about a third part of his army.

Such, most inadequately recounted, is the history of the ever-memorable three days, and of the events immediately preceding and following. It has been pretended, in order to diminish the magnitude of this disaster to the rebel cause, that it was merely the repulse of an attack on a strongly defended position. The tremendous losses on both sides are a sufficient answer to this misrepresentation, and attest the courage and obstinacy with which, in three days, battle was waged. Few of the great conflicts of modern times have cost victors and vanquished so great a sacrifice. On the Union side there fell, in the whole campaign, of generals killed, Reynolds, Weed, and Zook, and wounded, Barlow, Barnes, Butterfield, Doubleday, Gibbon, Graham, Hancock, Sickles, and Warren; while of officers below the rank of general, and men, there were 2,834 killed, 13,709 wounded, and 6,643 missing. On the Confederate side there were killed on the field, or mortally wounded, Generals Armistead, Barksdale, Garnett, Pender, Petigru, and Semmes, and wounded, Heth, Hood, Johnson, Kemper, Kimball, and Trimble. Of officers below the rank of general, and men, there were taken prisoners, including the wounded, 13,621, a number ascertained officially. Of the wounded in a condition to be removed, of the killed, and of the missing, the enemy has made no return. They were estimated, from the best data which the nature of the case admits, at 23,000. General Meade also captured three cannon and forty-one standards, and 24,978 small-arms were collected on the battle-field.

I must leave to others, who can do it from personal observation, to describe the mournful spectacle presented by these hill-sides and plains at the close of the terrible conflict. It was a saying of the Duke of Wellington that, next to a defeat, the saddest thing is a victory. The horrors of the battle-field after the contest is over, the sights and sounds of woe—let me throw a pall over the scene, which no words can adequately depict to those who have not witnessed it, and on which no one who has a heart in his bosom can bear to dwell. One drop of balm alone, one drop of heavenly, life-giving balm, mingles in this bitter cup of misery. Scarcely had the cannon ceased to roar when the brethren and sisters of Christian benevolence, ministers of compassion, angels of pity, hasten to the field and the hospital to moisten the parched tongue, to bind the ghastly wounds, to soothe the parting agony alike of friend and foe, and to catch the last whispered messages of love from dying lips. "Carry this miniature back to my dear wife, but do not take it from my bosom till I am gone." "Tell my little sister not to grieve for me; I am willing to die for my country." "Oh that my mother were here!" When, since Aaron stood between the living and the dead, were there ever so gracious a ministry as this? It has been said that it is characteristic of Americans to treat women with a deference not paid to them in any other country. I will not undertake to say whether this is so; but I will say that, since this terrible war has been waged, the women of the loyal States, if never before, have entitled themselves to our highest admiration and gratitude.

And now, friends, fellow-citizens, as we stand among these honored graves, the momentous question presents itself, which of the two parties to the war is responsible for all this suffering, for the dreadful sacrifice of life—the lawful and constituted government of the United States, or the ambitious men who have rebelled against it? I say "rebelled" against it, although Earl Russell, the British secre-

tary of state for foreign affairs, in his recent temperate and conciliatory speech in Scotland, seems to intimate that no prejudice ought to attach to that word, inasmuch as our English forefathers rebelled against Charles I. and James II., and our American fathers rebelled against George III. These certainly are venerable precepts, but they prove only that it is just and proper to rebel against oppressive governments. They do not prove that it was just and proper for the son of James II. to rebel against George I.; or his grandson, Charles Edward, to rebel against George II.; nor, as it seems to me, ought these dynastic struggles, little better than family quarrels, to be compared with this monstrous conspiracy against the American Union. These precedents do not prove that it was just and proper for the "disappointed great men" of the cotton-growing States to rebel against "the most beneficent government of which history gives us any account," as the Vice-President of the Confederacy, in November, 1860, charged them with doing. They do not create a presumption even in favor of the disloyal slave-holders of the South, who, living under a government of which Mr. Jefferson Davis, in the session of 1860–61, said that it was "the best government ever instituted by man, unexceptionally administered, and under which the people have been prosperous beyond comparison with any other people whose career has been recorded in history," rebelled against it because their aspiring politicians, himself among the rest, were in danger of losing their monopoly of its offices. What would have been thought by an impartial posterity of the American rebellion against George III. if the colonists had at all times been more than equally represented in Parliament, and James Otis and Patrick Henry and Washington and Franklin and the Adamses and Hancock and Jefferson, and men of their stamp, had for two generations enjoyed the confidence of the sovereign and administered the government of the empire? What would have been thought of the rebellion against Charles I. if Cromwell and the men of his school had been the responsible advisers of that prince from his accession to the throne, and then, on account of a partial change in the ministry, had brought his head to the block and involved the country in a desolating war for the sake of dismembering it and establishing a new government south of the Trent? What would have been thought of the Whigs of 1688 if they had themselves composed the cabinet of James II., and been the advisers of the measures and the promoters of the policy which drove him into exile? The Puritans of 1640 and the Whigs of 1688 rebelled against arbitrary power in order to establish constitutional liberty. If they had risen against Charles and James because those monarchs favored equal rights, and in order themselves "for the first time in the history of the world" to establish an oligarchy "founded on the cornerstone of slavery," they would truly have furnished a precedent for the rebels of the South, but their cause would not have been sustained by the eloquence of Pym or of Somers, nor sealed with the blood of Hampden or Russell.

I call the war which the Confederates are waging against the Union a "rebellion," because it is one, and in grave matters it is best to call things by their right names. I speak of it as a crime, because the Constitution of the United States so regards it, and puts "rebellion" on a par with "invasion." The constitution and law, not only of England, but of every civilized country, regards them in the same light; or, rather, they consider the rebel in arms as far worse than the alien enemy. To levy war against the United States is the constitutional definition of treason, and that crime is by every civilized government regarded as the highest which citizen or subject can commit. Not content with the sanction of human justice, of all the crimes against the law of the land it is singled out for the denunciation of religion. The litanies of every church in Christendom whose ritual embraces that office, as far as I am aware, from the metropolitan cathedrals of Europe to the humblest mission chapels in the islands of the sea, concur with the Church of England in imploring the Sovereign of the universe, by the most awful adjurations which the heart of man can conceive or his tongue utter, to "deliver us from sedition, privy conspiracy, and rebellion." And reason

good; for while a rebellion against tyranny — a rebellion designed, after prostrating arbitrary power, to establish free government on the basis of justice and truth—is an enterprise on which good men and angels may look with complacency, an unprovoked rebellion of ambitious men against a beneficial government, for the purpose—the avowed purpose—of establishing, extending, and perpetuating any form of injustice and wrong, is an imitation on earth of that foul revolt of "the infernal serpent" against which the Supreme Majesty of heaven sent forth the armed myriads of His angels, and clothed the right arm of His Son with the three-bolted thunders of omnipotence.

Lord Bacon, in the "true marshalling of the sovereign decrees of honor," assigns the first place to the *conditores imperiorum* — founders of states and commonwealths; and, truly, to build up from the discordant elements of our nature—the passions, the interests, and the opinions of the individual man, the rivalries of family, clan, and tribe, the influence of climate and geographical position, the accidents of peace and war accumulated for ages—to build up from these oftentimes warring elements a well-compacted, prosperous, and powerful state, if it were to be accomplished by one effort or in one generation would require a more than mortal skill. To contribute in some notable degree to this, the greatest work of man, by wise and patriotic counsel in peace and loyal heroism in war, is as high as human merit can well rise; and far more than to any of those to whom Bacon assigns this highest place of honor, whose names can hardly be repeated without a wondering smile — Romulus, Cyrus, Cæsar, Gothman, Ismael—it is due to our Washington as the founder of the American Union. But if to achieve, or help to achieve, this greatest work of man's wisdom and virtue gives title to a place among the chief benefactors, rightful heirs of the benedictions of mankind, by equal reason shall the bold, bad men who seek to undo the noble work—*eversores imperiorum*, destroyers of states, who for base and selfish ends rebel against beneficent governments, seek to overturn wise constitutions, to lay powerful republican unions at the foot of foreign thrones, to bring on civil and foreign war, anarchy at home, dictation abroad, desolation, ruin—by equal reason, I say—yes, a thousand-fold stronger—shall they inherit the execrations of the ages.

But to hide the deformity of the crime under the cloak of that sophistry which strives to make the worse appear the better reason, we are told by the leaders of the rebellion that in our complex system of government the separate States are "sovereign," and that the central power is only an "agency" established by those sovereigns to manage certain little affairs, such, forsooth, as peace, war, army, navy, finance, territory, and relations with the native tribes, which they could not so conveniently administer themselves. It happens, unfortunately for this theory, that the federal Constitution (which has been adopted by the people of every State of the Union as much as their own State constitutions have been adopted, and is declared to be paramount to them) nowhere recognizes the States as "sovereigns"—in fact, that by their names it does not recognize them at all; while the authority established by that instrument is recognized, in its text, not as an "agency," but as "the government of the United States." By that Constitution, moreover, which purports in its preamble to be ordained and established by "the people of the United States," it is expressly provided that "the members of the State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support the Constitution." Now it is a common thing, under all governments, for an agent to be bound by oath to be faithful to his sovereign; but I never heard before of sovereigns being bound by oath to be faithful to their agency.

Certainly I do not deny that the separate States are clothed with sovereign powers for the administration of local affairs; it is one of the most beautiful features of our mixed system of government. But it is equally true that, in adopting the federal Constitution, the States abdicated by express renunciation all the most important functions of national sovereignty, and, by one comprehensive, self-denying clause, gave up all

right to contravene the Constitution of the United States. Specifically, and by enumeration, they renounced all the most important prerogatives of independent States for peace and for war—the right to keep troops or ships - of - war in time of peace, or to engage in war unless actually invaded; to enter into compact with another State or a foreign power; to lay any duty on tonnage or any impost on exports or imports without the consent of Congress; to enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation, to grant letters of marque or reprisal, and to emit bills of credit; while all these powers and many others are expressly vested in the general government. To ascribe to political communities, thus limited in their jurisdiction, who cannot even establish a post-office on their own soil, the character of independent sovereignty, and to reduce a national organization, clothed with all the transcendent powers of government, to the name and condition of an "agency" of the States, proves nothing but that the logic of secession is on a par with its loyalty and patriotism.

Oh, but the "reserved rights"! And what of the reserved rights? The Tenth Amendment of the Constitution, supposed to provide for "reserved rights," is constantly misquoted. By that amendment "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." The "powers" reserved must of course be such as could have been, but were not, delegated to the United States—could have been, but were not, prohibited to the States; but to speak of the right of an individual State to secede, as a power that could have been, though it was not, delegated to the United States, is simply nonsense.

But, waiving this obvious absurdity, can it need a serious argument to prove that there can be no State right to enter into a new confederation reserved under a constitution which expressly prohibits a State to "enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation," or any "agreement or compact with another State or a foreign power"? To say that the State may, by enacting the preliminary farce of secession, acquire the right to do the prohibited things—to say, for instance, that though the States in forming the Constitution delegated to the United States, and prohibited to themselves, the power of declaring war, there was by implication reserved to each State the right of seceding and then declaring war; that, though they expressly prohibited to the States and delegated to the United States the entire treaty-making power, they reserved by implication (for an express reservation is not pretended) to the individual States—to Florida, for instance—the right to secede, and then to make a treaty with Spain retroceding that Spanish colony, and thus surrendering to a foreign power the key to the Gulf of Mexico—to maintain propositions like these, with whatever affected seriousness it is done, appears to me egregious trifling.

Pardon me, my friends, for dwelling on these wretched sophistries. But it is these which conducted the armed hosts of rebellion to your doors on the terrible and glorious days of July, and which have brought upon the whole land the scourge of an aggressive and wicked war—a war which can have no other termination compatible with the permanent safety and welfare of the country but the complete destruction of the military power of the enemy. I have, on other occasions, attempted to show that to yield to his demands and acknowledge his independence, thus resolving the Union at once into two hostile governments, with a certainty of further disintegration, would annihilate the strength and the influence of the country as a member of the family of nations; afford to foreign powers the opportunity and the temptation for humiliating and disastrous interference in our affairs; wrest from the Middle and Western States some of their great natural outlets to the sea and of their most important lines of internal communication; deprive the commerce and navigation of the country of two-thirds of our sea-coast and of the fortresses which protect it; not only so, but would enable each individual State—some of them with a white population equal to a good-sized northern county; or rather the dominant party in each State, to cede its territory, its harbors, its fortresses, the mouths of its rivers, to any foreign power. It cannot be that the people of the loyal States—that 22,000,000 of

brave and prosperous freemen—will, for the temptations of a brief truce in an eternal border war, consent to this hideous national suicide.

Do not think that I exaggerate the consequences of yielding to the demands of the leaders of the rebellion. I understate them. They require of us, not only all the sacrifices I have named, not only the cession to them, a foreign and hostile power, of all the territory of the United States at present occupied by the rebel forces, but the abandonment to them of the vast regions we have rescued from their grasp—of Maryland, of a part of eastern Virginia, and the whole of western Virginia; the sea-coast of North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida; Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri; Arkansas and the larger portion of Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas—in most of which, with the exception of lawless guerillas, there is not a rebel in arms; in all of which the great majority of the people are loyal to the Union.

We must give back, too, the helpless colored population, thousands of whom are perilling their lives in the ranks of our armies, to a bondage rendered tenfold more bitter by the momentary enjoyment of freedom. Finally, we must surrender every man in the southern country, white or black, who has moved a finger or spoken a word for the restoration of the Union, to a reign of terror as remorseless as that of Robespierre, which has been the chief instrument by which the rebellion has been organized and sustained, and which has already filled the prisons of the South with noble men, whose only crime is that they are not the worst of criminals. The South is full of such men.

I do not believe there has been a day since the election of President Lincoln when, if an ordinance of secession could have been fairly submitted, after a free discussion, to the mass of the people in any single Southern State, a majority of ballots would have been given in its favor. No; not in South Carolina. It is not possible that the majority of the people, even of that State, if permitted, without fear or favor, to give a ballot on the question, would have abandoned a leader like Petigru, and all the memories of the Gadsdens, the Rutledges, and the Cotesworth Pinckneys, of the Revolutionary and constitutional age, to follow the agitators of the present day.

Nor must we be deterred from the vigorous prosecution of the war by the suggestion continually thrown out by the rebels, and those who sympathize with them, that, however it might have been at an earlier stage, there has been engendered by the operations of the war a state of exasperation and bitterness which, independent of all reference to the original nature of the matters in controversy, will forever prevent the restoration of the Union and the return of harmony between the two great sections of the country. This opinion I take to be entirely without foundation.

No man can deplore more than I do the miseries of every kind unavoidably incident to the war. Who could stand on this spot and call to mind the scenes of the first days of July without any feeling? A sad foreboding of what would ensue, if war should break out between North and South, has haunted me through life, and led me, perhaps too long, to tread in the path of hopeless compromise, in the fond endeavor to conciliate those who were predetermined not to be conciliated.

But it is not true, as it is pretended by the rebels and their sympathizers, that the war has been carried on by the United States without entire regard to those temperaments which are enjoyed by the law of nations, by our modern civilization, and by the spirit of Christianity. It would be quite easy to point out, in the recent military history of the leading European powers, acts of violence and cruelty in the prosecution of their wars to which no parallel can be found among us. In fact, when we consider the peculiar bitterness with which civil wars are almost invariably waged, we must justly boast of the manner in which the United States have carried on the contest.

It is, of course, impossible to prevent the lawless acts of stragglers and deserters, or the occasional unwarrantable proceedings of subordinates on distant stations; but I do not believe there is in all history the record of a civil war of such gigantic dimensions where so little has been done in the spirit of vindictiveness

as in this war, by the government and commanders of the United States; and this notwithstanding the provocation given by the rebel government by assuming the responsibility of wretches like Quantrell, refusing quarter to colored troops, and scourging and selling into slavery free colored men from the North who fell into their hands, by covering the sea with pirates, refusing a just exchange of prisoners, while they crowded their armies with paroled prisoners not exchanged, and starving prisoners of war to death.

In the next place, if there are any present who believe that, in addition to the effect of the military operations of the war, the confiscation acts and emancipation proclamations have embittered the rebel beyond the possibility of reconciliation, I would request them to reflect that the tone of the rebel leaders and rebel press was just as bitter in the first months of the war, nay, before a gun was fired, as it is now. There were speeches made in Congress, in the very last session before the outbreak of the rebellion, so ferocious as to show that their authors were under the influence of a real frenzy.

At the present day, if there is any discrimination made by the Confederate press in the affected scorn, hatred, and contumely with which every shade of opinion and sentiment in the loyal States is treated, the bitterest contempt is bestowed upon those at the North who still speak the language of compromise, and who condemn those measures of the administration which are alleged to have rendered the return of peace hopeless.

No, my friends, that gracious Providence which overrules all things for the best, "from seeming evil still educing good," has so constituted our natures that the violent excitement of the passions in one direction is generally followed by a reaction in an opposite direction, and the sooner for the violence. If it were not so, if injuries inflicted and retaliated of necessity led to new retaliations, with forever accumulating compound interest of revenge, then the world, thousands of years ago, would have been turned into an earthly hell, and the nations of the earth would have been resolved into clans of furies and demons, each forever warring with his neighbor. But it is not so; all history teaches a different lesson. The Wars of the Roses in England lasted an entire generation, from the battle of St. Albans, in 1455, to that of Bosworth Field, in 1485. Speaking of the former, Hume says: "This was the first blood spilt in that fatal quarrel, which was not finished in less than a course of thirty years; which was signalized by twelve pitched battles; which opened a scene of extraordinary fierceness and cruelty; is computed to have cost the lives of eighty princes of the blood; and almost entirely annihilated the ancient nobility of England. The strong attachments which, at that time, men of the same kindred bore to each other, and the vindictive spirit which was considered a point of honor, rendered the great families implacable in their resentments, and widened every moment of the breach between the parties." Such was the state of things in England under which an entire generation grew up; but when Henry VII., in whom the titles of the two houses were united, went up to London after the battle of Bosworth Field, to mount the throne, he was everywhere received with joyous acclamations, "as one ordained and sent from heaven to put an end to the dissensions" which had so long afflicted the country.

The great rebellion in England of the seventeenth century, after long and angry premonitions, may be said to have begun with the calling of the Long Parliament, in 1640, and to have ended with the return of Charles II., in 1660; twenty years of discord, conflict, and civil war; of confiscation, plunder, havoc; a proud hereditary peerage trampled in the dust; a national Church overturned, its clergy beggared, its most eminent prelate put to death; a military despotism established on the ruins of a monarchy which had subsisted 700 years, and the legitimate sovereign brought to the block; the great families which adhered to the King proscribed, impoverished, ruined; prisoners of war—a fate worse than starvation in Libby—sold to slavery in the West Indies; in a word, everything that can embitter and madden contending factions. Such was the state of things for twenty years; and yet, by no gentle transition, but suddenly, and "when the restoration

of affairs appeared hopeless," the son of the beheaded sovereign was brought back to his father's blood-stained throne, with such "unexpressible and universal joy" as led the merry monarch to exclaim, "He doubted it had been his own fault he had been absent so long, for he saw nobody who did not protest he had ever wished for his return." "In this wonderful manner," says Clarendon, "and with this incredible expedition, did God put an end to a rebellion that had raged for twenty years, and had been carried on with all the horrible circumstances of murder, devastation, and parricide that fire and sword in the hands of the most wicked men in the world [it is a royalist that is speaking] could be instruments of, almost to the devastation of two kingdoms, and the exceeding defacing and deforming of the third. . . . By these remarkable steps did the merciful hand of God, in this short space of time, not only bind up and heal all those wounds, but even made the scar as indiscernible as, in respect of the deepness, was possible, which was a glorious addition to the deliverance."

In Germany the wars of the Reformation and of Charles V., in the sixteenth century, the Thirty Years' War in the seventeenth century, the Seven Years' War in the eighteenth century, not to speak of other less celebrated contests, entailed upon that country all the miseries of intestine strife for more than three centuries. At the close of the last-named war—which was the shortest of all, and waged in the most civilized age—"an officer," says Archenholz, "rode through seven villages in Hesse, and found in them but one human being." More than 300 principalities, comprehended in the empire, fermented with the fierce passions of proud and petty states; at the commencement of this period the castles of robber-counts frowned upon every hill-top; a dreadful secret tribunal whose seat no one knew, whose power none could escape, froze the hearts of men with terror through the land; religious hatred mingled its bitter poison in the seething caldron of provincial animosity; but of all these deadly enmities between the states of Germany scarcely the memory remains. There are controversies in that country at the present day, but they grow mainly out of the rivalry of the two leading powers. There is no country in the world in which the sentiment of national brotherhood is stronger.

In Italy, on the breaking up of the Roman Empire, society might be said to be resolved into its original elements—into hostile atoms, whose only movement was that of mutual repulsion. Ruthless barbarians had destroyed the old organizations, and covered the land with a merciless feudalism. As the new civilization grew up, under the wing of the Church, the noble families and the walled towns fell madly into conflict with each other; the secular feud of pope and emperor scourged the land; province against province, city against city, street against street, waged remorseless war with each other from father to son, till Dante was able to fill his imaginary hell with the real demons of Italian history. So ferocious had the factions become that the great poet-exile himself, the glory of his native city and of his native language, was, by a decree of the municipality, condemned to be burned alive if found in the city of Florence. But these deadly feuds and hatreds yielded to political influences, as the hostile cities were grouped into states under stable governments; the lingering traditions of the ancient animosities gradually died away, and now Tuscan and Lombard, Sardinian and Neapolitan, as if to shame the degenerate sons of America, are joining in one cry for a united Italy.

In France, not to go back to the civil wars of the League in the sixteenth century and of the Fronde in the seventeenth; not to speak of the dreadful scenes throughout the kingdom which followed the revocation of the edict of Nantes; we have, in the great revolution which commenced at the close of the last century, seen the blood-hounds of civil strife let loose as rarely before in the history of the world. The reign of terror established at Paris stretched its bloody Briarean arms to every city and village in the land; and if the most deadly feuds which ever divided a people had the power to cause permanent alienation and hatred, this surely was the occasion. But far otherwise the fact. In

seven years from the fall of Robespierre, the strong arm of the youthful conqueror brought order out of this chaos of crime and woe; Jacobins whose hands were scarcely cleansed from the best blood of France met the returning emigrants, whose estates they had confiscated and whose kindred they had dragged to the guillotine in the imperial ante-chambers; and when, after another turn of the wheel-of-fortune, Louis XVIII. was restored to his throne, he took the regicide Fouché, who had voted for his brother's death, to his cabinet and confidence.

The people of loyal America will never ask you, sir, to take to your confidence or admit again to share in the government the hard-hearted men whose cruel lust of power has brought this desolating war upon the land, but there is no personal bitterness felt even against them. They may live, if they can bear to live after wantonly causing the death of so many of their fellow-men; they may live in safe obscurity beneath the shelter of the government they have sought to overthrow, or they may fly to the protection of the governments of Europe—some of them are already there seeking, happily in vain, to obtain the aid of foreign power in furtherance of their own treason. There let them stay. The humblest dead soldier that lies cold and stiff in his grave before us is an object of envy beneath the clods that cover him in comparison with the living man—I care not with what trumpery credentials he may be furnished—who is willing to grovel at the foot of a foreign throne for assistance in compassing the ruin of his country.

But the hour is coming, and now is, when the powers of the leaders of the rebellion to delude and inflame must cease. There is no bitterness on the part of the masses. The people of the South are not going to wage an eternal war for the wretched pretexts by which this rebellion is sought to be justified. The bonds that unite us as one people, a substantial community of origin, language, belief, and law (the four great ties that hold the societies of men together); common national and political interests; a common history; a common pride in a glorious ancestry; a common interest in this great heritage of blessings; the very geographical features of the country; the mighty rivers that cross the lines of climate, and thus facilitate the interchange of natural and industrial products, while the wonder-working arm of the engineer has levelled the mountain-walls which separate the East and the West, compelling your own Alleghanies, my Maryland and Pennsylvania friends, to open wide their everlasting doors to the chariot-wheels of traffic and travel—these bonds of union are of perennial force and energy, while the causes of alienation are factitious and transient. The heart of the people, North and South, is for union. Indications, too plain to be mistaken, announce the fact, both in the east and the west of the States in rebellion. In North Carolina and Arkansas the fatal charm at length is broken. At Raleigh and Little Rock the lips of honest and brave men are unsealed, and an independent press is unlimbering its artillery. When its rifled cannon shall begin to roar, the hosts of treasonable sophistry, the mad delusions of the day, will fly like the rebel army through the passes of yonder mountain. The weary masses of the people are yearning to see the dear old flag again floating upon their capitols, and they sigh for the return of the peace, prosperity, and happiness which they enjoyed under a government whose power was felt only in its blessings.

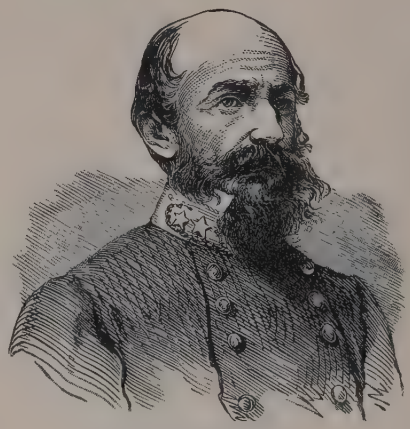
And now, friends, fellow-citizens of Gettysburg and Pennsylvania, and you from remote States, let me again, as we part, invoke your benediction on these honored graves. You feel, though the occasion is mournful, that it is good to be here. You feel that it was greatly auspicious for the cause of the country that the men of the East and the men of the West, the men of nineteen sister States, stood side by side on the perilous ridges of the battle. You now feel it is a new bond of union that they shall lie side by side till a clarion, louder than that which marshalled them to the combat, shall awake their slumbers. God bless the Union; it is dearer to us for the blood of the brave men which has been shed in its defence. The spots on which they stood and fell; these pleasant heights; the fertile plains beneath them; the thriving village whose streets so lately rang

with the strange din of war; the fields beyond the ridge, where the noble Reynolds held the advancing foe at bay, and, while he gave up his own life, assured by his forethought and self-sacrifice the triumph of the two succeeding days; the little stream which winds through the hills, on whose banks in after time the wondering ploughman will turn up the fearful missiles of modern artillery; Seminary Ridge, the Peach Orchard, Cemetery, Culp and Wolf Hill, Round Top, Little Round Top—humble names, henceforward dear and famous, no lapse of time, no distance of space, shall cause you to be forgotten. "The whole earth," said Pericles, as he stood over the remains of his fellow-citizens who had fallen in the first year of the Peloponnesian War, "the whole earth is the sepulchre of illustrious men." All time, he might have added, is the millennium of their glory. Surely I would do no injustice to the other noble achievements of the war, which have reflected such honor on both arms of the service, and have entitled the armies and the navy of the United States, their officers and men, to the warmest thanks and the richest rewards which a grateful people can pay. But they, I am sure, will join us in saying, as we bid farewell to the dust of these martyr heroes, that wheresoever throughout the civilized world the accounts of this great warfare are read, and down to the latest period of recorded time, in the glorious annals of our common country there will be no brighter page than that which relates the battles of Gettysburg.

Evertsen, CORNELIS, naval officer; born in Zealand. In 1673 he was despatched against the English colonies in America. He captured or destroyed a large number of ships from Virginia to Staten Island, where he arrived on Aug. 7. He demanded the surrender of New York City, and the next day, Aug. 8, he landed 600 men, to whom the fort was surrendered, the British garrison being allowed to march out with the honors of war. He renamed the city New Orange and reorganized the government upon the old Dutch lines, and after proclaiming Captain Colve governor he sailed for Holland.

Ewell, BENJAMIN STODDERT, educator; born in Washington, D. C., June 10, 1810; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1832; Professor of Mathematics at Hampden-Sidney College in 1840–46; professor of the same and acting president of William and Mary College in 1848–54. He opposed secession until the Civil War opened, when he became a colonel in the Confederate army. After the war he used all his influence to promote reconstruction. He died in James City, Va., June 21, 1894.

Ewell, RICHARD STODDERT, military officer; born in Georgetown, D. C., Feb. 8, 1817; graduated at West Point in 1840; served in the Mexican War, and received the brevet of captain. He joined the Confederate army in 1861; was promoted to major-general in 1862; and was conspicuous in the Shenandoah Valley, in the battles near Richmond, Malvern Hill, Cedar Mountain, Gettysburg, the Wilderness, Spottsylvania Court-house, and during the siege of Petersburg. In the BATTLE OF GROVETON (*q. v.*) he lost a leg, and in May, 1863, was made lieutenant-general. He was engaged in stock-raising in Spring Hill, Tenn., at the time of his death, Jan. 25, 1872.



RICHARD STODDERT EWELL.

Ewing, HUGH BOYLE, military officer; born in Lancaster, O., Oct. 31, 1826; son of Thomas Ewing; studied in the United States Military Academy; went to California in 1849; returned to Lancaster in 1852; and began the practice of law. In 1861 he entered the National army as

brigadier-inspector of Ohio volunteers; promoted brigadier-general Nov. 29, 1862; brevetted major-general in 1865. He wrote *The Grand Ladron: A Tale of Early California*, etc. He died in 1905.

Ewing, JAMES, military officer; born in Lancaster, Pa., Aug. 3, 1736; was chosen a brigadier-general of Pennsylvania troops, July 4, 1776. After the war he was vice-president of Pennsylvania for two years; then a member of the Assembly and State Senator. He died in Hellam, Pa., March 1, 1806.

Ewing, THOMAS, statesman; born near West Liberty, Va., Dec. 28, 1789. While still a child his father removed to Ohio, where he settled on the Muskingum River. Thomas was educated at the Ohio University; admitted to the bar in 1816; and elected United States Senator from Ohio as a Whig and a follower of Henry Clay in 1831. In 1841 he was appointed Secretary of the Treasury; in 1849 Secretary of the Interior; and in 1850 was again elected to the United States Senate, succeeding Thomas Corwin. During this term he opposed the Fugitive Slave Law bill and also advocated the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. He died in Lancaster, O., Oct. 26, 1871.

Ewing, THOMAS, legislator; born in Lancaster, O., Aug. 7, 1829; educated at Brown University; secretary to President Taylor, 1849–50; practised law in Cincinnati, 1852–56; removed to Leavenworth, Kan., in 1856; elected chief-justice of Kansas in 1861. He resigned in 1862, when he became colonel of the 11th Kansas Volunteers; brigadier-general, 1863, for gallantry at Prairie Grove; held Fort Davidson at Pilot Knob with a small force against a Confederate army; retreating at last to Rolla, Mo.; brevet major-general, 1865. He returned to Ohio and served as a member of Congress, 1877–81; defeated as candidate of the Democratic party for governor of Ohio in 1879; removed to New York City, 1881, where he founded the Ohio Society of New York. He died in New York City, Jan. 21, 1896.

Exchanges. See CLEARING-HOUSES; STOCK EXCHANGE.

Exchange, BILLS OF. See BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

Exchange of Prisoners. See WAR, PRISONERS OF.

Excise, FIRST. The first bill to impose a tax on liquors was introduced into the Congress at the beginning of 1791, on the recommendation of Alexander Hamilton, then Secretary of the Treasury. As finally passed, it imposed upon all imported spirits a duty varying from 25 to 40 cents per gallon, according to strength. The excise to be collected on domestic spirits varied with their strength from 9 to 25 cents per gallon on those distilled from grain, and from 11 to 30 cents when the material was molasses or other imported product; thus allowing, especially when the duty on molasses was taken into account, a considerable discrimination in favor of the exclusively home product. There was much opposition to this law in and out of Congress. The details of the working of the law for securing a revenue from this source were very stringent, yet very just. The most violent opposition appeared in Western Pennsylvania soon after its enactment, and when steps were taken for its enforcement by calling out 15,000 militia. See WHISKEY INSURRECTION.

Executive. During the colonial period the executive power was vested in the governors appointed by the crown, excepting in Connecticut and Rhode Island, and from 1620–91 in Massachusetts, where the people elected. From Sept. 5, 1774, to March 4, 1789, Congress was the sole executive for the united colonies, at first managing all business through committees, later through commissions or boards, until in 1781, when four departments were organized by Congress and each placed under a single head. Those heads were known as Secretaries for Foreign Affairs, War, Marine, and Finance, respectively.

Exemptions from Taxation. The property of the United States and of a State or Territory, county, and municipality is exempt from taxation in nearly every State and Territory. Other properties that are exempted in local tax laws vary according to the laws of the several States.

Exhibitions. See EXPOSITIONS, INDUSTRIAL.

Exmouth, EDWARD PELLEW, VISCOUNT, naval officer; born in Dover, England, April 19, 1757; entered the navy at the age of thirteen years; first distinguished

himself in the battle on Lake Champlain, in 1776; and rendered great assistance to Burgoyne in his invasion of New York. He became a post-captain in 1782, and Baron Exmouth in 1814. He died in Teignmouth, Jan. 23, 1833.

Expansion. See ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY; ANNEXED TERRITORY, STATUS OF.

Expatriation. The United States holds that the Act of Expatriation "is a natural and inherent right of all people, indispensable to the enjoyment or the rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, and any declaration questioning this right is inconsistent with the fundamental principles of the Republic." Other nations have not taken the same broad view; therefore, special treaties have been entered into by the United States with other nations, providing for naturalization, in some cases restricted by the obligation on the part of the alien to have completed his military duty to the state of his birth before emigration. Russia has consistently refused to recognize passports issued by the United States to Jews, independent of the fact whether such Jews were originally Russian subjects or not. This has led to an agitation in favor of denouncing the treaty of 1832 between the United States and Russia.

Expenditures of the United States. See APPROPRIATIONS, CONGRESSIONAL.

Explosives for Large Guns. We present some extracts from an article in the *North American Review* by Hiram Stevens Maxim, the highest authority on the subject:

The properties of nitro-glycerine were for many years but imperfectly understood. It was said of it that if you wished it to explode it was impossible to make it do so; if you handled it with great care and did not wish it to explode it was almost sure to go off; sometimes it could be set on fire, and would burn very much like a slow fuse, while again the least jar would cause the most frightful detonation. Evidently such an agent was not suitable for use in fire-arms, and it was only after Nobel's discovery that nitro-glycerine could be gelatinized with collodion cotton (di-nitro-cellulose) that engineers began to experiment with a view of using this high explosive in projectiles.

The naval and military engineers at Shoeburyness were among the first to conduct experiments, and it was found that when sufficient collodion cotton was employed to make the compound about the consistency of soft rubber, it could be fired with a comparative degree of safety from ordinary guns, providing, of course, that the powder charge used as a propellant was not too violent. Large numbers of rounds were fired under apparently identical conditions, with the result that perhaps 99 per cent. passed harmlessly out of the gun, while about 1 per cent. exploded in the bore of the gun, completely demolishing it.

Another source of danger, especially when compressed gun-cotton is employed in rifled cannon, arises from the quick and violent twist given to the projectile, which rotates the case or shell, without rotating the bursting charge. This I obviated by dividing the interior of the shell into numerous compartments. Still no one could be persuaded to use my torpedo-gun.

The next step was the Zalinski gun. This had been made and tested in the United States, when it was found that large charges of high explosives could be thrown considerable distances from an air-gun. One of these guns was brought to England and fired at Shoeburyness. It was said at the time that three shots fired with the gun firmly locked in a stationary position landed in the same hole in the mud. The accuracy was admitted to be remarkable, but the velocities were so low, the range so short, and the trajectory so high, that it was almost impossible to hit the target when the gun was fired from a ship. It was even said that if the gun were properly aimed from a ship and the trigger pulled, the barrel, on account of its great length, would move sufficiently after the trigger was pulled and before the shot left the gun, to throw the shot completely off the target. Still, it was believed that under certain conditions the gun might be useful for fortifications. In any compressed air-gun of the Zalinski type, it will be evident that an increase in the atmospheric pressure is not attended by a corresponding increase in the velocity of the projectile, because the higher the pressure of the air the greater its weight and density, so that when the pressures are in

creased, we will say from 2,000 to 3,000 lbs. per square inch, the actual velocity of the projectile is only slightly increased. It occurred to me at that time that if the pressure could be increased without increasing the weight or density of the air a great improvement would result. I therefore constructed a gun in which I used only 1,000 lbs. pressure per square inch. The gun being loaded, in order to fire the trigger was pulled, which acted upon a large balance-valve which suddenly sprang open; the projectile was then driven forward. When it had moved from 2 to 3 calibres, the charge of gasoline and air was ignited, and while the projectile was still moving forward, the fire ran back into the chamber, constantly raising the pressure, so that by the time the projectile had reached the muzzle of the gun the pressure had mounted from 1,000 to 6,000 lbs. per square inch, and the result was a comparatively high velocity with a short barrel. This gun was fired a great number of rounds in 1888, and found to be quite reliable.

The first smokeless powder that I made in England was made in exactly the same manner as the French. I had obtained a quantity of true gun-cotton—that is, tri-nitro-cellulose (known sometimes as insoluble gun-cotton because it cannot be dissolved in alcohol and ether like collodion cotton, di-nitro-cellulose). Some of this powder, when freshly made, produced fairly good results, quite as good as those produced by the French powder, but upon keeping it for a few months the grains lost their transparency, became quite opaque and fibrous, and it then burned with great violence. Investigation showed that about 1 to 2 per cent. of the solvent was still in the powder when the first tests were made, whereas the drying out of this last trace of solvent had completely changed the character of the powder. I then added to this powder about 2 per cent. of castor oil, with the result that the castor oil remained after the solvent had been completely removed, so that the powder would keep any length of time—indeed, powder made at that time (1889) is quite good to-day.

But I wished to produce still higher results. I believed that if the nitro-glycerine and the gun-cotton were intimately combined an explosive wave would not pass through the mixture, and experiments revealed that I was quite correct. All mixtures of from 1 per cent. to 75 per cent. of nitro-glycerine were experimented with, the result being that from 10 to 15 per cent. was found to be the best, everything considered.

The greater part of the smokeless powders employed to-day consist of a mixture of nitro-glycerine and gun-cotton. The mixing is brought about by the agency of acetone, a species of alcohol which dissolves both gun-cotton and nitro-glycerine. When a small quantity of this spirit is present, the mass is of a semi-plastic consistency, and may be squirted or spun through a die by pressure, in the same way that lead pipe is made. The first powder experimented with was drawn into threads and called by the British government "cordite." This was found to work admirably in small-bore ammunition, but when it came to a question of larger guns it was found advantageous to form the powder into tubes with one or more holes.

By increasing the number of perforations, it was found that a powder could be made which, instead of burning slower and slower as the projectile moved forward in the gun, would cause the development of gas to increase as the projectile moved forward with accelerated velocity in the bore. This was exactly what was required, and led to my patent on progressive smokeless powder.

In the olden time, when guns were not rifled, and spherical shots were employed with a powder charge of about one-eighth of the weight of the projectile, the erosion caused by the gases passing the projectile was so small as to be considered a negligible quantity—in fact, its existence was practically unknown to the majority of artillerists at that time, but upon the introduction of rifled guns with elongated projectiles and heavy powder charges erosion became a serious obstacle, which increased as the powder and range of the gun increased. Large guns made in England from ten to fifteen years ago, using black or cocoa powder with projectiles of 3 or 4 calibres, and having a velocity rather less than 2,000 feet per sec-

ond, were destroyed after firing from 300 to 400 rounds. When the velocities were increased to about 2,200 feet it was found that the wear was about four times as great, while some very powerful guns made in France were completely worn out after firing sixty rounds. With smokeless powder, which gives a still higher velocity to the projectile, the erosion is still further increased, so that in some cases I have known guns to be destroyed after firing only a few rounds.

In order to obviate this trouble we have provided the projectiles with what might be termed an obturating band; that is, just behind the copper driving band we have placed a semi-plastic gas check. Behind it is placed what might be termed a junk ring, arranged in such a manner that when the gun is fired the junk ring moves forward and subjects the gas ring to a pressure 20 per cent. greater than the pressure in the gun—that is, if the pressure in the gun amounts to 14 tons per square inch the pressure on the gas ring is about 17 tons to the square inch. This is found to completely stop the passage of gas between the projectile and the bore of the gun; so we are now able to fire large guns many hundreds of rounds with full charges before any perceptible wear takes place in the barrel. This will enable our naval authorities to practise gunnery to almost any extent without the danger of wearing their guns out, and it is believed by many that in the near future no large guns will be fired on shipboard without the employment of the obturating gas check.

Export Exposition, NATIONAL, a unique exposition held in Philadelphia, Pa., between Sept. 14 and Dec. 2, 1899, under the auspices of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum and the Franklin Institute. It had the distinction of being the first national exposition of manufactures adapted for export trade that was ever held. Its aim was to show that the United States could manufacture any article which might be needed in any foreign market. The construction of the buildings and the preparation of the grounds, covering 9 acres, cost about $1,000,000. Nearly 1,000 exhibits, consisting of the most complete collection of strictly domestic manufactures ever brought together and representing more than $500,000,000 of invested capital, were shown. Under a special appropriation by Congress there was also exhibited a collection of samples of foreign goods to enable American manufacturers to become acquainted with the style of goods required in foreign markets. The exposition was handsomely promoted by the United States government; representatives of foreign governments and industrial life were numerous in attendance, and the affair was fruitful in beneficial results. The president was Peter A. B. Widener, and the director-general, Dr. William P. Wilson.

Exports. The following table shows the exports of American merchandise in decade years:

1790	$19,666,000
1800	31,840,903
1810	42,366,675
1820	51,683,640
1830	58,524,878
1840	111,660,561
1850	134,900,233
1860	356,242,423
1870	455,208,341
1880	823,946,353
1890	845,293,828
1900	1,477,949,666
1910	1,864,411,270

See COMMERCE.

Exports of the United States. See COMMERCE.

Expositions, INDUSTRIAL. The first industrial exposition in the United States was held in Philadelphia in 1824 under the auspices of the Franklin Institute. In 1828 the American Institute in New York City was chartered, and after this came the founding of the Massachusetts Charitable Mechanics' Association in Boston, and the Maryland Institute in Baltimore. These four organizations early began holding annual expositions, or "fairs," as they were then called, and have since continued to do so. Numerous other mechanics' institutes were soon afterwards organized in various cities, and these for various periods imitated the exposition features of the older organizations. The American agricultural "fair" dates from 1810, when Elkanah Watson succeeded in gathering, in Pittsfield, Mass., an exposition, or "fair," of articles allied to agricultural life. Now nearly every State and Territory in the country has its agricultural society, which

gives annual expositions of the products of the farm and dairy, with a variety of other features deemed necessary to popularize the undertaking. Some of the most noteworthy State agricultural fairs began to diminish in interest about the time of the first International or World's Fair held in London in 1851, and to this form of exposition succeeded expositions of special articles possessing features of State, national, and international combinations. Among such that have been held in the United States, or to which American artisans have contributed when held in other countries, are the international expositions of fishery and fishery methods; life-saving apparatus and methods; forestry products and methods of forest preservation; railroad appliances; electrical apparatus; food preparations; and wood-working and labor-saving machinery. Then, too, in the United States, there have been the special expositions of art associations and leagues in the principal cities, and horse, dog, and sportsmen's shows, the latter a notable feature of the year in New York City. The United States stands alone in maintaining four permanent expositions: one in the former Art Palace of the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago, now known as the Field Columbian Museum; another in the former Memorial Hall of the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia; and two, known as Commercial Museums, in Philadelphia. The following is a list of the principal industrial expositions of the world, to nearly all of which the United States has been a large contributor: London, 1851; New York, 1853; Munich, 1854; Paris, 1855; London, 1862; Paris, 1867; Vienna, 1873; Philadelphia, 1876; Paris, 1878; Atlanta, 1881; Louisville, 1883; New Orleans, 1884; Paris, 1889; Chicago, 1893; San Francisco, 1894; Atlanta, 1895; Nashville, 1897; Omaha, 1898; Philadelphia, 1899; Paris, 1900; Buffalo, Charleston, Glasgow, 1901; St. Louis, 1904 Portland, Ore., 1905; Seattle, Wash., 1909. For details of the most noteworthy of these expositions, see their respective titles.

Express Company Trust. See TRUSTS.

Expunging Resolution. President Jackson was censured by the Senate in June, 1834, but Jan. 16, 1837, the censure was repealed, and in the *Journal* of the Senate a black line was drawn around the entry of the original resolution, and the words "Expunged by order of the Senate, Jan. 16, 1837," inserted.

Extradition. Treaties on the subject of criminals arise from the universal practice of nations to surrender criminals only under special treaty with the country which claims them. Treaties of this character have been made between the United States and the principal nations of the world. The crimes for which extradition is usually granted are forgery, burglary, embezzlement, counterfeiting, grand larceny, manslaughter, murder, perjury, rape, and other felonies. In modern states, particularly in England and the United States, political offences have always been excepted from extradition. In the United States, persons committing certain crimes in one State and fleeing to another are generally extraditable on application of the governor of the State in which the crime was committed to the governor of the State wherein the fugitive has sought refuge. In the case of States, as well as of nations, it is now generally held that extradition can be effected only for the specific crime charged in the papers accompanying the official demand.

Eyma, LOUIS XAVIER, author; born in Martinique, W. I., Oct. 16, 1816; was sent by the French government on several missions to the United States and the West Indies; spent a number of years in studying the institutions of America; and published a number of books on the subject, among them *The Women of the New World; The Two Americas; The Indians and the Negroes; The American Republic, its Institutions,* etc. He died in Paris, France, March 29, 1876.

Ezra's Church (Ga.), BATTLE OF. See ATLANTA (July 28, 1864).

F.

Fabian Policy, a military policy of avoiding decisive contests and harassing the enemy by marches, counter-marches, ambuscades, and orderly retreats.

Fairbank, CALVIN, clergyman; born in Pike, N. Y., Nov. 3, 1816; graduated at Oberlin College in 1844. He was an ardent abolitionist, and during 1837–43 aided forty-seven slaves to escape by ferrying them across the Ohio River. In 1843 he heard of a nearly white slave-girl at Lexington who was to be sold at auction. He secured her liberty for $1,485, and took her to Cincinnati, where she was educated. In 1844, with Miss D. A. Webster, he opened the way for the escape of the Hayden family. For this offence he was sentenced to fifteen years' imprisonment, and Miss Webster to two years. He was pardoned in 1849. Later he was again detected in the violation of the Fugitive Slave Law, and sentenced a second time to fifteen years in prison at Frankfort. In 1864 he was set at liberty. He published *How the Way was Prepared.* He died in Angelica, N. Y., Oct. 12, 1898.

Fairbanks, CHARLES WARREN, lawyer; born near Unionville Centre, Union county, O., May 11, 1852; was graduated at Ohio Wesleyan University in 1872; admitted to the bar in Columbus, O., in 1874; and practised in Indianapolis till 1897, when he was elected to the United States Senate; appointed a member of the United States and British Joint High Commission to settle the differences with Canada, becoming chairman of the United States commissioners, in 1898; was a delegate from Indiana to the Republican National Convention at Philadelphia in 1900, and, as chairman of the committee on resolutions, reported the platform; and was re-elected United States Senator in 1903. In 1904 he was chairman of the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds, and a member of other important committees. The same year he was elected Vice-President on the ticket headed by Theodore Roosevelt. On the expiration of his term he made a tour of the world, spending much time and making many speeches in the Far East.

Fairbanks, GEORGE RAINSFORD, historian; born in Watertown, N. Y., July 5, 1820; graduated at Union College in 1839; admitted to the bar in 1842; removed to Florida in 1842; major in the Confederate army in 1862–65; president Florida Historical Society from 1903; author of *History and Antiquities of St. Augustine; History of Florida,* etc.

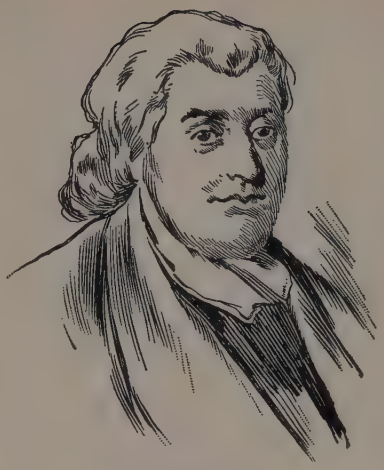
Fairbanks, THADDEUS, inventor; born in Brimfield, Mass., Jan. 17, 1796; settled in St. Johnsbury, Vt., in 1815. In 1831 he patented the platform scales bearing his name. He died in St. Johnsbury, Vt., April 12, 1886.

Fairchild, CHARLES STEBBINS, lawyer; born in Cazenovia, N. Y., April 30, 1842; graduated at Harvard in 1863; admitted to the New York bar in 1865; Secretary of the United States Treasury in 1887–89; was affiliated with the Democratic party, but acted with the Gold Democrats in 1896, taking part in the Indianapolis Monetary Conference; subsequently in business in New York City.

Fairchild, LUCIUS, military officer; born in Kent, O., Dec. 27, 1831; removed with his father to Wisconsin in 1846, but returned in 1855. At the beginning of the Civil War he enlisted, and in August, 1861, was commissioned captain in the regular army and major in the volunteers. He took part in the battle of Bull Run, and at Antietam went to the front from the hospital; he led the charge up Seminary Hill at the battle of Gettysburg, and was badly wounded, losing his left arm. He was promoted to brigadier-general in 1863, but left the service to serve as secretary of state of Wisconsin. He

was afterwards elected governor, and served six consecutive terms. In 1886 he was elected commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic. He died in Madison, Wis., May 23, 1896.

Fairfax, DONALD MCNEILL, naval officer; born in Virginia, Aug. 10, 1822; joined the navy in 1837; and served with the Pacific fleet during the war with Mexico. In 1862–63 he was with Farragut; was then given command successively of the *Nantucket* and the *Montauk*, with which he took part in a number of attacks upon the defences of Charleston Harbor; and in 1864–65 was superintendent of the Naval Academy. He was promoted rear-admiral in July, 1880; retired in 1881. He died in Hagerstown, Md., Jan. 11, 1894.



THOMAS FAIRFAX.

Fairfax, THOMAS, sixth Baron of Cameron; born in England in 1691; educated at Oxford; was a contributor to Addison's *Spectator*, and finally, soured by disappointments, quitted England forever, and settled on the vast landed estate in Virginia which he had inherited from his mother, daughter of Lord Culpeper. He built a lodge in the midst of 10,000 acres of land, some of it arable and excellent for grazing, where he resolved to build a fine mansion and live a sort of hermit lord of a vast domain. He was at middle age when he came to America. He never built the great mansion, but lived a solitary life in the lodge he had built, which he called Greenway Court. There Washington first met him and became a frequent visitor, for Fairfax found him a bright young man, a good hunter, in

GREENWAY COURT.

which sport he himself loved to engage, and useful to him as a surveyor of his lands. He became very fond of the young surveyor, who was a loved companion of George William Fairfax, a kinsman of Lord Fairfax. Many visitors went to Greenway Court, and the hospitable owner always treated everybody kindly. There Lord Fairfax lived during the storms of the French and Indian War, and of the Revolution, taking no part in public affairs, but always a stanch loyalist. When the news came that his young friend Washington had captured Cornwallis, he was ninety years of age. He was overcome with emotion, and he called to his body servant to carry him to his bed, "for I am sure," he said, "it is time for me to die," He died at his lodge, Greenway Court, in Frederick county, Va., Dec. 12, 1781.

The eleventh Lord Fairfax and Baron of Cameron, JOHN CONTÉE FAIRFAX, was born in Vaucluse, Va., Sept. 13, 1830; was a physician; succeeded his brother in the title in 1869; and died in Northampton, Md., Sept. 28, 1900. The twelfth Lord Fairfax, ALBERT KIRBY, born in Prince George county, Md., June 23, 1870; claimed the title and was confirmed in it by the House of Lords in 1908.

Fairfax Court-house, SKIRMISH AT. Rumors prevailing early in May, 1861, that a Confederate force was at Fairfax Court-house, Lieut. C. H. Tompkins, with seventy-five cavalry, was sent from Arlington Heights on a scout in that direction. He left late in the evening of May 31, and reached the village of Fairfax Court-house at three o'clock the next morning, where Colonel Ewell, late of the United States army, was stationed with several hundred Confederates. Tompkins captured the pickets and dashed into the town, driving the Confederates before him. There they were reinforced, and a severe skirmish occurred in the streets. Shots were fired upon the Union troops from windows. Finding himself greatly outnumbered by the Confederates, Tompkins retreated, taking with him several prisoners and horses. He lost one man killed, four wounded, and one missing. He also lost twelve horses and their equipments. About twenty of the Confederates were killed or wounded.

Fairfield, Conn. It contains the Pequot and Memorial libraries, a stone powder-house, and four other buildings constructed during the Revolutionary period. The town was founded in 1639. In 1779 it was burned by Governor Tryon. Pop. (1900), 4,489; (1910), 6,134.

Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines, BATTLE AT. In May, 1862, Gen. Fitz-John Porter was sent by General McClellan with a considerable force to keep the way open for McDowell's army to join him, which he persistently demanded, in order to venture on a battle for Richmond. Porter had some sharp skirmishes near Hanover Court-house, and cut all railway connections with Richmond, excepting that from Fredericksburg. Meanwhile General McClellan telegraphed to the Secretary of War that Washington was in no danger, and that it was the duty and policy of the government to send him "all the well-drilled troops available." When these raids on the Confederate communications had been effected, Porter rejoined the main army on the Chickahominy, and McClellan telegraphed again to the Secretary, "I will do all that quick movements can accomplish, but you must send me all the troops you can, and leave me full latitude as to choice of commanders." Three days afterwards General Johnston, perceiving McClellan's apparent timidity and the real peril of the National army, then divided by the Chickahominy, marched boldly out of his intrenchments and fell with great vigor upon the National advance, under Gen. Silas Casey, lying upon each side of the road to Williamsburg, half a mile beyond a point known as the Seven Pines, and 6 miles from Richmond. General Couch's division was at Seven Pines, his right resting at Fair Oaks Station. Kearny's division of Heintzelman's corps was near Savage's Station, and Hooker's division of the latter corps was guarding the approaches to the White Oak Swamp. General Longstreet led the Confederate advance, and fell upon Casey, May 31.

Very soon the Confederates gained a position on Casey's flanks, when they were driven back to the woods by a spirited bayonet charge by Pennsylvania, New York, and Maine troops, led by General Naglee. Out of the woods immediately the Confederates swarmed in great num-

bers, and the battle raged more fiercely than ever. The Nationals fell back to the second line, with a loss of six guns and many men; yet, notwithstanding the overwhelming numbers of the Confederates, and exposed to sharp enfilading fires, Casey's men brought off fully three-fourths of their artillery. Keyes sent troops to aid Casey, but they could not withstand the pressure, and the whole body of Nationals were pushed back to Fair Oaks Station, on the Richmond and York Railway. Reinforcements were sent by Heintzelman and Kearny, but these were met by fresh Confederates, and the victory seemed about to be given to the latter, when General Sumner appeared with the divisions of Sedgwick and Richardson. Sumner had seen the peril, and, without waiting for orders from McClellan, had moved rapidly to the scene of action in time to check the Confederate advance. The battle continued to rage fiercely. General Johnston was severely wounded, and borne from the field; and early in the evening a bayonet charge by the Nationals broke the Confederate line and it fell back in confusion. The fighting then ceased for the night, but was resumed in the morning, June 1, when Generals Hooker and his troops took a conspicuous part in the struggle, which lasted several hours. Finally the Confederates, foiled, withdrew to Richmond, and the Nationals remained masters of the field of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines. The losses in this battle were about the same on both sides—7,000 men each. It was nearly one-half of both combatants, for not more than 15,000 men on each side were engaged. In this battle Gen. O. O. Howard lost his right arm. Casey's division, that withstood the first shock of the battle, lost one-third of its number.

Falconio, Diomede; born in Italy, in 1842; became a missionary to the United States in 1865; ordained priest in 1866; was made an American citizen in 1868; held various church appointments in 1872–92; consecrated bishop of Lacedonia in 1892; raised to archbishop of Acerenza and Matera in 1895; and elevated to the cardinalate in 1911. In 1899–1902 he was apostolic delegate to Canada, and was then transferred to the United States.

Falkland Islands, The. These islands were under the protection of Buenos Ayres, and had been leased to Don Louis Vernet, who undertook to compel sailing vessels to take out a license to catch seals under his authority. He captured three American vessels, and when the news of this and other outrages reached the United States, the President sent Captain Duncan, in the ship-of-war *Lexington*, to protect American sealers in that region. In December, 1831, he broke up Vernet's establishment, restored the captured prop-

FAIR OAKS.

erty to the owners, and sent seven of the most prominent actors to Buenos Ayres for trial. The authorities of that republic were indignant at this treatment of Vernet, as he was under the protection of their flag, but they did not think it proper to pursue the affair beyond a vigorous protest.

TURKEY-FOOT'S ROCK.

Fallen Timbers, BATTLE OF. On the morning of Aug. 20, 1794, General Wayne, on his campaign in the Indian wilderness, advanced with his whole army from his camp at Roche de Bout, at the head of the Maumee Rapids, according to a plan of march prepared by his young aide-de-camp, Lieut. William Henry Harrison. He had proceeded about 5 miles, when they were smitten with a terrible volley of bullets from a concealed foe, and compelled to fall back. They were on the borders of a vast prairie, at a dense wood, in which a tornado had prostrated many trees, making the movements of mounted men very difficult, and forming an excellent cover for the foe, who were composed of Canadians and Indians, 2,000 in number, posted on their lines within supporting distance of each other. But Wayne's troops fell upon them with fearful energy, and made them flee towards the British Fort Miami, below, like a herd of frightened deer for cover. In one hour the victory was complete. The fugitives left forty of their number dead in the pathway of their flight. By the side of each dead body lay a musket and bayonet from British armories. Wayne lost in killed and wounded 133 men; the loss of his foes was not ascertained. On the battle-ground, at the foot of the Maumee Rapids, is a limestone rock, on which are numerous carvings of bird's feet. It is a stone upon which Me-sa-sa, or Turkey-foot, a renowned chief, leaped when he saw his line of dusky warriors giving way, and by voice and gesture endeavored to make them stand firm. He fell, pierced by a musket-ball, and died by the side of the rock. Members of his tribe carved turkeys' feet upon the stone in commemoration of him, and for many years men, women, and children, passing there, would linger at the stone, place dried beef, parched corn, and pease, or some cheap trinket upon it, and, calling upon the name of Me-sa-sa, weep piteously. This battle ended the Indian War in the Northwest.

Falling Waters, SKIRMISH NEAR. Embarrassing telegraphic despatches were received by Gen. Robert Patterson, near Harper's Ferry, late in June, 1861. He was eager to advance, though Johnston had a greatly superior force. He made a reconnoissance on July 1, and on the 2d, with the permission of Scott, he put the whole army across the river at Williamsport, and pushed on in the direction of the camp of the Confederates. Near Falling Waters, 5 miles from the ford they had crossed, the advanced guard, under Col. John J. Abercrombie, which had arrived at 4 A. M., fell in with Johnston's advance, consisting of 3,500 infantry, with Pendleton's battery of field-artillery, and a large force of cavalry, under Col. J. E. B.

Stuart, the whole commanded by "Stonewall" Jackson. Abercrombie advanced to attack with musketry. A severe conflict ensued. In less than half an hour, when Col. George H. Thomas was hastening to support Abercrombie, Jackson fled and was pursued for about five miles, when, the Confederates being reinforced, the pursuit ceased.

Fall River, city and port of entry of Bristol county, Mass., at the mouth of the Taunton River where it empties into Mount Hope Bay; 49 miles south of Boston. The stream called Fall River is the outlet of Watuppa Lake, and has a fall of 129 feet in less than half a mile, affording excellent water-power. Fall River is the largest cotton-milling city in the United States. According to the federal census of 1905 the city has 39 factory-system cotton-goods establishments, employing 21,604 persons and $51,170,891 capital, and manufacturing goods to the value of $32,307,977 annually. Other important manufactures were machines and machinery, food preparations, clothing, woolen goods, metals and metallic goods, drugs and medicines, paints and dyes, cordage and twine, and clocks, watches, and jewelry. All manufactures reported 234 establishments, 27,503 persons employed, $69,375,125 capital, and an annual output valued at $43,473,105.

In 1910 the exchanges at the clearing-house aggregated $67,849,400, against $43,478,436 in 1900, and the assessed property valuations $92,488,520, about cash value. The city was originally a part of Freetown, but was incorporated separately in 1803. Later it was called Troy, but its first name was restored in 1834. The city charter was granted in 1854, and in 1862 Fall River in Newport county, R. I., was annexed. The centennial of the inauguration of cotton manufacturing here was celebrated by a unique carnival, June 19–24, 1911. Pop. (1900), 104,863; (1910) 119,295.

Falmouth, TREATIES AT. The Penobscot and Norridgewock Indians sent delegates to a conference in Boston, June 23, 1749, and there proposed to treat for peace and friendship with the people of New England. A treaty was soon afterwards made at Falmouth, N. H., between them and the St. Francis Indians, by which peace was established. At a conference held at St. George's, in York county, Me., Sept. 20, 1753, the treaty at Falmouth was ratified by more than thirty of the Penobscot chiefs; but the next year, when hostilities between France and England began anew, these Eastern Indians showed signs of enmity to the English. With 500 men the governor of Massachusetts, accompanied by Colonel Mascarene, a commissioner from Nova Scotia, Major-General Winslow, commander of the forces, held another conference with these Indians at Falmouth. There, on the last of June, 1754, former treaties were ratified.

Famine, COTTON, in England. See COTTON FAMINE.

Faneuil, PETER, merchant; born in New Rochelle, N. Y., in 1700; went with his parents to Boston in 1701; succeeded to his father's business; and in 1740 offered to build and present to the city a public market-house. He died in Boston, Mass., March 3, 1743.

Faneuil Hall, the "Cradle of Liberty"; built by Peter Faneuil; completed in 1742; burned out in 1761; rebuilt in 1763; used by the British as a theatre in 1775; and enlarged in 1805. The lower story was used as a market. It was a meeting-place of the people during the disputes with Great Britain which led to the Revolutionary War, hence the name "Cradle of Liberty." See BOSTON.

Fannin, JAMES W., military officer; born in North Carolina in 1800; took part in the struggle between Texas and Mexico, serving as captain; associated with Captain Bowie; at the head of ninety men he defeated a much greater force of Mexicans at San Antonio. On March 19, 1836, he was attacked by a Mexican force under General Urrea. He succeeded in driving off the Mexicans, but they returned the next day with a reinforcement of 500 men, together with artillery. Resistance being practically useless, they surrendered upon condition that they be treated as prisoners of war. After being disarmed they were sent to Goliad, Tex., where by order of General Santa Ana all American prisoners, 357 in number, were marched out in squads, under various pretexts, and were fired upon by the Mexicans. All of the prisoners were killed with the exception of

twenty-seven, who escaped, and four physicians, whose professional services were required by Santa Ana.

Fanning, DAVID, freebooter; born in Wake county, N. C., about 1756; was a carpenter by trade, and led a vagabond life, sometimes trading with Indians. Late in the Revolution he joined the Tories for the purpose of revenge for injuries inflicted upon him. He gathered a small band of desperadoes like himself and laid waste whole settlements and committed fearful atrocities. For these services he received the commission of lieutenant from the British commander at Wilmington. So encouraged, he captured many leading Whigs, and hanged those against whom he held personal resentment. At one time he captured a whole court in session and carried off judges, lawyers, clients, officers, and some of the citizens. Three weeks later he captured Colonel Alston and thirty men in his own house, and soon afterwards, dashing into Hillsboro, he captured Governor Burke and his suite and some of the principal inhabitants. The name of Fanning became a terror to the country and he was outlawed. At the close of the war he fled to New Brunswick, where he became a member of the legislature. About 1800 he was sentenced to be hanged for rape, but escaped, and died in Digby, Nova Scotia, in 1825.

Fanning, EDMUND, jurist; born on Long Island, N. Y., in 1737; graduated at Yale College in 1757, and settled as a lawyer in Hillsboro, N. C., where he became popular, and was made colonel of Orange county (1763) and clerk of the Supreme Court (1765). He was also a member of the legislature, and married the daughter of Governor Tryon. He became rapacious, and by his exorbitant legal fees made himself very obnoxious to the people. Their hatred was increased by his energetic exertions in suppressing the Regulator movement (see REGULATORS). He fled to New York with Governor Tryon to avoid the consequences of popular indignation. He was appointed surveyor-general of North Carolina in 1774. In 1776 he raised and led a force called "the King's American Regiment of Foot." After the Revolution he went to Nova Scotia, where he became a councillor and lieutenant-governor in September, 1783, and from 1786 to 1805 was governor of Prince Edward's Island. He rose to the rank of general in the British army in 1808. Fanning was an able jurist, and always regretted his later career in North Carolina. He was greatly influenced by his father-in-law. He died in London, Feb. 28, 1818.

EDMUND FANNING.

Far East. The countries bordering on the Pacific Ocean in the extreme East, usually applied to all parts from Siberia to Australia, including the Philippine Islands.

Farewell Addresses. The most important was that of WASHINGTON, Sept. 17, 1796, suggested by Madison, who furnished a draft for the same in 1792, and incorporating some suggestions by Hamilton; but the main portion was Washington's own views. (The full text of this address will be found in Vol. 10, in the article WASHINGTONIANA.) He wrote to Hamilton, the arch-Federalist, and Madison, who was turning Democrat, for advice as to what he should say—took their phrases for his thought where they seemed better than his own, and put forth the address as his mature and last counsel to the little nation he loved. This address was filled with the best advice, and it contained many truths of a general nature, but it was not possible at that time to speak of the things that the people of that day needed to hear without entering the field of party discussion. This was particularly true of those parts, perhaps the strongest phrases in the long paper, where

it warned the people against being drawn into the meshes of their own factions, and which cautioned them against an "irregular opposition" to government, and against the neglect of the public dignity. The highly excited Republican leaders of that day gave such words as these something more than an academic interpretation, although an inference with the impending election was certainly not Washington's intention. Andrew Jackson delivered a farewell address in 1837.

Fargo, WILLIAM GEORGE, expressman; born in Pompey, N. Y., May 20, 1818; became the Buffalo agent of the Pomeroy Express Company in 1843; established the first express company west of Buffalo in partnership with Henry Wells and Daniel Dunning in 1844. The line was extended until it reached San Francisco, Cal. In 1868 Mr. Fargo became president of the corporation, which by the time of his death had 2,700 offices, over 5,000 employes, and a capital of $18,000,000. The city of Fargo, N. D., was named after him. He died in Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 3, 1881. See PONY EXPRESS.

Faribault, city and capital of Rice county, Minn.; at the confluence of the Cannon and Straight rivers, 53 miles south of St. Paul. It is noted on account of a memorable controversy which arose in the Roman Catholic Church in 1891 over the action of a priest in transferring the parochial school to the management of the public-school board. The scheme and conditions, which became known as the Faribault Plan, were approved by Archbishop Ireland. On April 30, 1892, the plan was sanctioned in Rome by the Congregation of the Propaganda. Pop. (1900), 7,868; (1910) 9,001.

Faribault, JOHN BAPTIST, pioneer; born in Berthier, Quebec, about 1769; entered the service of the American Company, of which John Jacob Astor was president, in 1796, and was assigned to the Northwest. After traversing the country he located at Des Moines, Ia., and later on removed to St. Peter, Minn. After ten years' service with the American Company he went into business on his own account, and soon accumulated a fortune, but lost it all in the War of 1812 through the fact of his having taken the American side during the contest. The English seized him at Mackinac as a trader and kept him confined for a short period. He died in Faribault, Minn. (which city had been founded by his son Alexander), in 1860.

Farley, JOHN MURPHY, cardinal; born in Newton Hamilton, Ireland, April 20, 1842; was educated in Ireland, Rome, and the United States; ordained priest in 1870; secretary to Archbishop McCloskey in 1872-84; appointed auxiliary bishop of New York in 1895; succeeded Archbishop Corrigan, Sept. 15, 1902, and was elevated to the cardinalate in 1911. Author of *Life of Cardinal McCloskey; Why Church Property Should not be Taxed; History of St. Patrick's Cathedral*, etc.

Farman, ELBERT ELI, jurist; born in New Haven, Oswego county, N. Y., April 23, 1831; graduated at Amherst College in 1855, and studied in Warsaw, N. Y., where he was admitted to the bar in 1858. He studied in Europe in 1865–67, and on returning to the United States was made district attorney of Wyoming county, N. Y. In March, 1876, he was appointed United States consul-general at Cairo, Egypt, and there became a member of the commission to revise the international codes. Later President Garfield appointed him a judge of the international court of Egypt. He was also a member of the international committee appointed to investigate the claims of citizens of Alexandria for damages caused by the bombardment of that city by the British in 1882. It was principally through his efforts that the obelisk known as "Cleopatra's Needle," which stands near the Metropolitan Art Museum in Central Park, New York City, was secured. When he left Egypt, Mr. Farman received from the Khedive the decoration of Grand Officer of the Imperial Order of the Medjidi. Author of *Along the Nile with General Grant.*

Farmer, JOHN, born in Half Moon, N. Y., Feb. 9, 1798. He drew and published the maps of Michigan, Lake Superior, Detroit, Wisconsin, etc. He died in Detroit, Mich., March 24, 1859.

Farmer, JOHN, historian; born in Chelmsford, Mass., June 12, 1789; became a schoolmaster, but abandoned this profession to enter trade; was one of the founders and corresponding secretary of the New Hampshire Historical Society.

Among his works are *Belknap's History of New Hampshire; Genealogical Register of the First Settlers of New England; Histories of Billerica and Amherst*, etc., and, in connection with J. B. Moore, the *Collections of New Hampshire*. He died in Concord, N. H., Aug. 13, 1838.

Farmer, Moses Gerrish, electrician; born in Boscawen, N. H., Feb. 9, 1820; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1844; taught in Elliot, Me., and in Dover, N. H., for two years. During his leisure hours while in Dover he invented several forms of electro-motors, one of which he used in his experimental workshop to drive a vertical lathe, and the other was used on a miniature railway. Both motors were originally designed to illustrate his lectures. He demonstrated that the electrical current could be used for discharging torpedoes and in submarine blasting. On his miniature railway he transported by electricity the first passengers ever so carried in the United States. In 1847 he moved to Framingham, Mass., and invented the telegraph fire-alarm. In 1865 he invented a thermo-electric battery and also built the first dynamo machine. In 1880 he patented an automatic electric-light system. Besides these inventions he brought to light and perfected many others. He is considered one of the pioneers in electricity. He died in Chicago, Ill., May 25, 1893.

Farmer, Silas, historian; born in Detroit, Mich., June 6, 1839. In 1882 he was elected historiographer of Detroit, and in 1884 published a *History of Detroit and Michigan*. He died in 1902.

Farmers' Alliance, a political organization that originated soon after the close of the Civil War. The main purpose of this movement was the mutual protection of farmers against the encroachment of capital. The first body was organized in Texas to prevent the wholesale purchase of public land by private individuals. In 1887 the Farmers' Union of Louisiana united with the Texas organization under the name of the Farmers' Alliance and Co-operative Union of America. The movement soon spread into Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, North and South Carolina, Florida, Georgia, and Mississippi. In 1889 a similar organization, which had been formed in 1877 in Illinois, and which had spread into neighboring States, was amalgamated with the Southern Alliance, and the name of Farmers' Alliance and Industrial Union was adopted. The founders of the alliance held that the party was formed along political lines because the parties already existing failed to undertake to solve the problems covered by the demands of the alliance. In 1890 the alliance elected several governors, other State officers, and a few Congressmen. On May 19, 1891, delegates from the Farmers' Alliance, the Knights of Labor, and several other organizations met in a national convention in Cincinnati, adopted a platform, and formed a new political party under the name of the People's Party of the United States of America, which became contracted to Populist party. Another convention was held in St. Louis, Feb. 22, 1892, at which the Farmers' Alliance had 246 delegates out of the 656 present. It was not, however, until 1897 that the alliance dropped its old name, its interests having been by that time merged with those of the People's Party (*q. v.*).

Farmers' Institutes. The Secretary of the American Association of Farmers' Institute Managers, Mr. Frederick W. Taylor, who has been identified with the prominent horticultural business of the West for many years, writes as follows:

Within recent years the idea has gone abroad that education may be taken to a larger constituency than it is possible to reach by the schools of higher grade through the ordinary channels. This idea has received the name of University Extension (*q. v.*), and in one form or another the work has been attempted along various lines with varying results.

The University Extension idea contemplates the facilitating the study by the people of certain higher branches by means of lectures, which are usually given by university professors in the same way as are their class-room lectures. Meetings of the local centres, as they are sometimes called, are held as frequently as possible, perhaps weekly, and a regular amount of home preparation is expected of those in attendance. In many cases this work has been very successful, making possible the acquirement of systematic training by

those who might otherwise never have been able to make any addition to the perhaps slight education which they acquired in the public schools.

But there has been developed, more or less directly from University Extension, a work among farmers and others engaged in rural occupations which has outstripped, in far-reaching effects and in point of numbers touched, all the other forms of extension work. This has taken to itself the name of "Farmers' Institutes," and has made itself felt all over the United States. Nearly every State in the Union now has some sort of an arrangement under which Farmers' Institutes are held.

A study of the manner of growth in a single State may serve to indicate pretty clearly what has been the experience in almost every State in which the institutes have gained a strong foothold.

Some of the progressive farmers in certain communities gathered together a number of their neighbors, about a dozen years ago, with the thought that an interchange of ideas might be beneficial, and that if some of those who had been successful in certain lines, as in stock-growing, for instance, could be persuaded to describe their methods, their brethren might adopt such as seemed fitted to their special needs, thus making possible more satisfactory results in that particular branch of agriculture. After a few such gatherings, speakers of training and reputation were sought for, who could command the confidence of their hearers and attract to the meetings the most intelligent and successful farmers. It seemed natural to turn to the State university for trained men to fill this place on the programme.

Soon, however, the calls became so frequent that a loss of time and money resulted from the fact that the points asking assistance were located in widely separated and distant parts of the State. Then arose the necessity of intrusting the arrangements for sending out speakers to one person, who should make the appointments in series, so that a speaker going to a distant part of the State might reach several points in the course of one trip. There was developed a bureau for conducting the work of the institutes, to which was referred all correspondence on that subject. The university, soon finding itself unable to supply all the speakers required, would call on the various State societies to supply speakers on subjects coming within the scope of their work.

This is the actual record of the growth of institute work in one State, and it is only a type of what is going on in nearly all the States.

After the various organizations and societies in a State for promoting the spread of education through this means have united their forces, it has usually been only a short time until the expansion has been so great as to make it necessary to ask the legislature for a direct appropriation for the Farmers' Institutes, and then the work may be said to be really established. As a rule, the results actually accomplished require only to be brought clearly before the lawmakers to secure the needed funds.

One of the first States to reach such a financial basis as made the doing of good work possible was Wisconsin, and that State may be taken as a type of one form of institute management. There the money appropriated by the State is put into the hands of the State university, and is expended under the direction of that institution.

A superintendent is employed, who conducts all the correspondence, appoints dates, employs speakers, and in general exercises supervision. Localities desiring meetings must make their arrangements with him, agreeing to supply a hall for the gathering and to attend to advertising. A conductor is assigned to each meeting, who takes entire charge, seeing that the programme is presented as advertised and that interest in the proceedings is kept up. Three or four speakers are usually sent to each institute, local talent being called upon to complete the programme. Full discussion is not only permitted, but encouraged, the questions and their answers often consuming half the time or even more.

Practical demonstrations are given of improved methods wherever possible. For instance, a machine for showing the butter content of milk is used in the presence of the audience, and its value explained and demonstrated by means of

samples of milk brought in, upon request, by farmers of the vicinity. The necessity of knowing exactly what is the value of each individual in the dairy herd is thus clearly shown. Charts are exhibited and used as the basis of talks showing the correct types of the different breeds of animals. Under this system a number of institutes are kept going in various parts of the State during the greater part of the winter season.

In Minnesota a different method prevails. The institutes are, practically, schools, the superintendent and his corps of assistants going in one body, and remaining at each institute during the entire session. Under this arrangement a smaller number of institutes can be held with a given amount of assistance, but the work is undoubtedly more thorough.

The work in all the States may be said to be based on one or the other of these two plans, or on some modification of them.

If the sessions described, usually of two or three days' duration, represented all of the institute work, there might be good ground for the criticism that the service is insufficient, in that in so short a time little of lasting benefit could be accomplished. But the result of a start in institute work at any point is almost invariably the organization of a local body for holding more or less frequent meetings for regular discussions. Thus there is a constant exchange of ideas going on between the most progressive persons engaged in agricultural and horticultural pursuits.

A single illustration may indicate the good that may come from such meetings as this movement brings about.

In a certain county in one of the Western States there had been long search after some forage plant which should prove thoroughly adapted to the needs of the locality. The country was new, and the grasses which were common in other parts of the State did not seem to succeed there, while the fencing in of the wild pasturage caused the indigenous grasses to disappear rapidly. Some of the most progressive farmers organized an institute, and knowing of a man who had been successful in the growth of a certain species which was not generally supposed to be adapted to the conditions prevailing there, asked him to tell how he had succeeded in getting it to grow and flourish. The man was German, writing and speaking English indifferently, but he finally consented to do his best to explain his methods, some of which were unusual, the result of his own experience and painstaking investigation. Much interest was manifested in the subject, and a perfect volley of questions asked and answered, relating to every detail as to the preparation of the soil, sowing the seed, care of the crop for the first and subsequent years, and other similar practical matters. A year later, at the next annual meeting of the institute, careful inquiry brought out the fact that at least 1,000 acres of this particular forage plant had been sown, with almost uniform success, as a result of the information gained from this single discussion.

When the desirability of enlarging the work has become apparent, no force has been so ready to co-operate in doing so as the railroads, which have, in most States, supplied transportation for speakers.

There is no occupation in which sharp competition and improved methods have made it so necessary to keep abreast or even ahead of the times as farming. When it is discovered that certain sections are specially adapted to dairying, grazing, the growth of certain grain or fruit crops, or any other specialty, the sooner accurate and improved practical methods are introduced the sooner will wealth flow towards that community. The present condition of the dairy interest in the State of Wisconsin may be pointed out as well illustrating this proposition. No State in the Union to-day has a higher standing as to the product of its dairies. As regards the volume of the industry, it is only necessary to state that a single county has nearly 200 creameries in successful operation, the important fact, as regards the subject, being that no small amount of the credit for the condition mentioned is frankly admitted by those most able to judge to be due to the educational work of the Farmers' Institutes.

In disseminating accurate information regarding the growth of the sugar beet, as in many other directions, there is work

enough to keep a corps of speakers actively engaged in every State in the Union which is at all adapted to that or any other of the industries that are to take place among the practical and wealth-making efforts of agriculture. And besides the new industries to be introduced, there are always the improved methods with which the successful farmer must constantly familiarize himself.

The largest amount given by any one State for Farmers' Institutes is appropriated by Wisconsin, the sum being $15,000. Other States give liberally, notably Minnesota, New York, and Ohio, while various sums are given by Pennsylvania, Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Nebraska, New Jersey, and a few others. More or less organized work has also been done in Missouri, Arizona, California, South Dakota, Kansas, Colorado, Florida, and, indeed, could the facts all be got together, in almost every State in the Union. The provinces of Ontario and Manitoba have done some of the best work on the continent, both in volume and in quality.

In a number of States the funds are not appropriated in a lump sum, but each county may, by vote, levy a tax for the purpose of raising a sufficient sum to carry on one or more institutes, a portion of the amount going towards the payment of the local expenses, and the rest going to the central organization, sometimes under the control of the State Board of Agriculture, for the payment of the speakers and other necessary expenses connected with the general work of the State.

So far as known the Farmers' Institutes have been kept, in every State, entirely out of politics. One of the fundamental principles always insisted upon is that no question of religion or politics must be permitted to be discussed on any consideration.

In Europe something is done along the same lines by means of lectures delivered by men sent out by the governments.

In Russia, through some of the imperial societies, considerable progress has been made in the way of bringing this sort of instruction directly to the people. In St. Petersburg is maintained a great agricultural museum, in which lectures are given during the winter season; and at other times regular courses of lectures, on the various economic subjects relating to the farm, are given on the estates, in order that the working people themselves may be reached and taught.

His Excellency N. A. Hamakoff, Director of the Department of Agriculture in Russia, expressed himself as particularly interested in that line of work, and the interest in the dissemination of such knowledge in other European countries is well known by those who have made any study of the question. Count Leo Tolstoi, in the course of a conversation on the economic questions of the day as related to rural life, showed the deepest interest in this particular method of spreading knowledge among the masses, and said that he thought it an eminently practical way of giving such training as is sorely required to those needing it.

The great interest that is everywhere manifested in the improvement of methods in agricultural work, not only in the United States, but in Europe, should surely indicate what is necessary to be done if we are to retain our position at the head of agricultural countries. To assist in maintaining that place is the mission of the Farmers' Institute movement.

Farmer's Letters, The, a series of letters, the first of which appeared in the *Pennsylvania Chronicle*, Dec. 2, 1767, followed by thirteen others in quick succession, all of which were written by John Dickinson, who had formulated a bill of rights in the Stamp Act Congress. This series of letters resulted in the circular letter of the general court of Massachusetts, sent out Feb. 11, 1768, in which cooperation was asked in resistance to the English ministerial measures.

Farming by Electricity. George Ethelbert Walsh, who has given special attention to the practical application of recent scientific discoveries, writes as follows:

In the light of the recent discoveries almost anything seems possible, if not probable, in the application of this fluid. Electric ploughs have been patented in Vienna, and electric hay-rakes, reapers, carts, and threshing machines have been placed upon exhibition in the United States, and their utility tested favorably. Experimental farms have been established where nearly all the work has been per-

formed by means of this powerful agent—fields ploughed, harrowed, fertilized, and rolled, seeds planted and covered with soil, plants fertilized and weeds killed, and crops harvested and threshed. The power has been generated by erecting a large turbine-wheel on some stream where the current could be depended upon to turn it. The cost of manufacturing the electricity has been reduced to a comparatively small sum in this way, and the prospects of conducting large farms in the future on an electric basis seem alluring and attractive.

But the most noticeable application of electricity to farming methods is that of employing the current to stimulate the growth of the plants. While nothing very practical has yet been accomplished in this field, the reports of the experiment farms and stations warrant one in believing that something definite may yet come out of all the labor and trouble expended. The electric garden may be a future novelty that will have for its chief recommendation a real practical utility.

Many years ago several European scientists made experiments with electricity upon plant life. Lemstrom in Finland, Spechneff in southern Russia, and Celi in France, worked independently along the same line, applying the electric current to the seeds and the soil in which the plants were growing, and to the air immediately above the surface of the soil. Spechneff, by applying the electric current to the seeds and afterwards to the soil, raised radishes 17 inches long and 5½ inches in diameter. The colors of flowers were also intensified or changed according to the power and distance of the current, and the maturity of the plants was greatly hastened.

The first attempts to experiment along the lines of Lemstrom in the United States were made at Cornell University about 1890. Agricultural scientists had long recognized the valuable part that atmospheric electricity played in the life of vegetable growths, but the artificial application of it had never before been attempted. In addition to the application of electricity to the seeds of the plants, and to the soil, the experimenters at Cornell used the arc light at night. The plants receiving the bright electric rays at night, and the sunshine in the day time, were found to grow much faster than those not thus supplied with the artificial stimulant. Lettuce, spinach, radishes, and similar vegetables were brought to maturity in almost half the time ordinarily required. By applying the arc light direct to the plants their growth was so accelerated that many ran to seed before edible leaves were formed. Plants placed within 5 feet of the lamp died and wilted shortly after being taken out of the soil.

The effect upon flowering plants was almost as startling. The plants were made to shoot up rapidly, and under forced stimulation the stalks grew up tall, slender, and weak. The blooms were hastened in their growth, and in the case of the petunias they produced more flowers than by the old system. Verbenas, on the other hand, were uniformly injured when placed near the electric lamp. Both the leaves and the flowers were hastened in their growth, but they were small and insignificant, while many of the lower clusters died before they had reached their full expansion. The effect of the electric light upon colors was even more interesting than upon the growth of the plants. The colors of the tulips were deepened and made more brilliant, while most of the scarlet, dark red, blue, and pink flowers were turned to a grayish white. Nearly all of the flowers artificially stimulated into beauty by the electric light soon lost their brilliancy and faded much more quickly than those raised by nature's methods.

An important part of the experiments that have been made along this line is that the crops that were not injured by the electric lights were nearly twice as large as those not exposed to the influence of the current. Lemstrom, in trying to measure the influence of the current upon growing wheat and vegetables, procured 50 per cent. more grains from a small tract of ground that was planted with a small network of wires than from a similar plot of soil not thus stimulated.

Experiments have been continued with more or less regularity at Cornell since these first discoveries, and it is probable that we will yet be able to attain the results long anticipated by agricultural scientists. Some plants have been found to have such a fondness for the electric light that they not only grow faster under its influence, but incline their heads tow-

ards the lamp. Others are injured rather than benefited, and they lose all of their valuable qualities after being exposed to the arc light for a few nights. The question of softening the light of the lamps to suit the different plants has been in the course of investigation, and now globes of "opal" glass are used to reduce the power of the rays. An amber-colored globe is usually employed at Cornell, for the orange rays are supposed to be the most favorable to the growth of vegetation. The various effect of the different colored rays of light upon the vegetation is strange and interesting to those experimenting with the electric light.

It is doubted by many whether the arc light can be made as efficacious as the electric current supplied through wires to the soil. Lemstrom obtained his most wonderful results by this latter method, and the plants were injured less by it than many that have been subjected to the electric lights.

In 1892 it was reported that a market gardener named Rawson, living in the town of Arlington, Mass., had used the electric lights to profitable advantage. His attention was called to the effect of electric light upon plants in 1889, when the town of Arlington began to light the streets with electricity. One of the powerful lights was located near his garden so that its rays fell directly upon a bed of flowers. These plants, situated within the circuit of the light, immediately began to grow rapidly and vigorously, outstripping all others in the garden. Satisfying himself that the cause of this was the electric light, the gardener had set up in his large hothouse a lamp of the same kind. After one or two seasons' trial he found that he could raise more winter lettuce and radishes in a given space in much shorter time by using the arc lights, the incandescent burners not proving so suitable, while the quality was much superior. His profits were estimated to have been increased 25 to 40 per cent. by introducing the arc lights into his greenhouse.

This was but another confirmation of the tests made before that in Europe, and later on at Cornell. Now it seems that the French scientists have been working regularly and systematically on the question also, and they have recently obtained some results that are promising. The French electric garden is more successful than any established in the United States. An instrument is used to bring into play the electricity in the air, cheapening the process of supplying the current to the plants. At the present cost of generating electricity, it is doubtful if its use could be made more profitable upon many farms, even though it should greatly stimulate the growth and quality of fruits and vegetables. The French instrument is supposed to reduce the cost of generation so that every farmer could avail himself of it.

The system consists of laying a network of wires in the garden where the plants are growing, and connecting them with a copper wire that runs to the top of a pole some 40 or 50 feet high. This pole is surmounted by a collector, insulated by a porcelain knob. The height of the pole enables the collector to gather the electricity in the atmosphere from a wide area, and when transmitted to the garden through the wires it produces better results than the electricity generated from a dynamo. The atmospheric electricity is not by any means as strong as that from a dynamo, but its action is to stimulate the plants without injuring them.

Gardens that have been stimulated by the atmospheric electricity, gathered and distributed by the geomagnetifere, have increased their growth and products 50 per cent. Vineyards have been experimented upon, and the grapes produced have not only been larger in size and quantity, but richer in sugar and alcohol. The flowers have attained a richer perfume, and more brilliant colors. The effect on the whole has been very satisfactory, and it is hopefully expected by the French scientists that the new method of applying atmospheric electricity to plants will greatly facilitate our plants in their future growth. Nearly all of the garden vegetables grew with astonishing rapidity when stimulated by the electric current, applied first to the seeds, and subsequently to the soil in which they germinated.

It is difficult to explain the reason why the electric light or current so marvellously affects the growth of plants, but the fact that such stimulation does occur cannot be denied. One theory is that the

electricity helps the plants to take up and assimilate certain valuable salts in the earth, and another that it aids them in appropriating more nitrogen of the air. Atmospheric electricity supplied naturally plays an important part in the economy of plant growth, and it has been simply through a desire to test its further effect that scientists have been induced to make the experiments. Now, however, it is possible that a practical utility may be derived from the tests conducted in the United States and other countries.

It would be difficult to conceive the ultimate effect upon our industrial and economic life if electric gardens could be successfully established by farmers, and the yield increased 50 per cent. The product of our farms and gardens would thus be doubled, and the world's supply of food-stuff be increased beyond the point of consumption, or the acreage would rapidly decrease. The profits to the farmers would not by any means be doubled. The cost of installing an electric garden would form an item of expense that they do not calculate with to-day. The cost of a dynamo or battery would be beyond their reach, but if the electricity of the atmosphere could be collected and distributed in the garden, there would be some hope of their securing the current necessary for all purposes.

The use of electricity on the future model farm will be far greater than it is to-day, and it is not impossible that the horse will be crowded out of his legitimate work in this field, as he has been on the city car-lines. An experimental farm to show the use of this power in cultivating the fields has been established in the West. The electricity is generated by a turbine-wheel, which is turned by the current of a small stream dammed up for the purpose, and the cost of the power is reduced to a minimum. Sufficient power is generated by the wheel to light the whole place, and to run the threshing machines, plough the fields, harvest the crops, and run motor bicycles or wagons anywhere within the limits of the farm. A large Western farm, consisting of thousands of acres, with a good stream of water flowing through it, could probably be conducted on a cheaper scale to-day than by steam. In fact, the owners of some of the large farms are eagerly watching the development of electric locomotion, and, as soon as experiments justify their actions, the steam plough will be supplanted by those run by electricity. See AGRICULTURAL INSTRUCTION TRAINS.

Farms. See AGRICULTURE.

Farnham, ELIZA WOODSON, philanthropist; born in Rensselaerville, N. Y., Nov. 17, 1815; wife of Thomas Jefferson Farnham; was matron of the New York State Prison (female department), at Sing Sing, in 1844–48, where she proved that the inmates could be controlled by kindness. Afterwards she was engaged in various philanthropic movements. Her publications include *California, Indoors and Out; Woman and Her Era,* etc. She died in New York City, Dec. 15, 1864.

Farnham, THOMAS JEFFERSON, author; born in Vermont in 1804; forsook the legal profession in 1839 and went across the continent to Oregon and later to California, where he was influential in obtaining the release of some American and English prisoners who had been held by the Mexican government. He is the author of *Travels in Oregon; Travels in California; A Memoir of the Northwest Boundary Line,* etc. He died in California, in September, 1848.

Farnum, JOHN EGBERT, military officer; born in New Jersey, April 1, 1824; served in the war with Mexico; later was commander of the slaver *Wanderer,* which fact he ever after regretted. During the Civil War he served in the National army, participating in the actions at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, etc.; and receiving the brevet of brigadier-general of volunteers in recognition of his gallantry. He died in New York City, May 16, 1870.

Farquhar, NORMAN VON HELDREICH, naval officer; born in Pottsville, Pa., April 11, 1840; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1859; served throughout the Civil War, and was present at both attacks on Fort Fisher; was promoted rear-admiral, Dec. 25, 1898; appointed commander of the North Atlantic Station, Oct. 14, 1899. In 1889 he was in command of the frigate *Trenton,* flag-ship of the Pacific Station, which had been suddenly ordered to SAMOA (*q. v.*). On March 16, a terrible hurricane swept

ADMIRAL DAVID G. FARRAGUT

over the harbor of Apia, where war-ships of the United States, Great Britain, and Germany were at anchor. Several American and German ships were wrecked at the beginning of the hurricane. The British corvette *Calliope* succeeded in steaming out of danger. As the *Calliope* passed the *Trenton* a great shout went up from over 400 men aboard the American flag-ship, and three cheers were given for the *Calliope*. Immediately three cheers were given by the *Calliope*. A few moments later the *Trenton* herself was wrecked, but Captain Farquhar succeeded in saving all his crew of 450 men and officers excepting one. He died in Jamestown, R. I., July 3, 1907.

Farragut, David Glasgow, naval officer; born near Knoxville, Tenn., July 5, 1801; son of George Farragut, who was a native of Minorca; came to America in 1776; entered the Continental army; was a bugler, it is supposed, at the age of seventeen, in the battle of the Cowpens; attained the rank of major; settled in Tennessee; and was master in the United States navy, serving under Patterson in the defence of New Orleans. David entered the navy as midshipman when between nine and ten years of age, first serving under Porter, and was with him in the terrible fight at Valparaiso. He was promoted to commander in 1841, having served faithfully up to that time. Still persevering in duty, he was placed in very responsible positions afloat and ashore, and when the Civil War broke out he was in command of the *Brooklyn*, steam sloop-of-war. He commanded the naval expedition against New Orleans in the spring of 1862, having the *Hartford* as his flag-ship. Organizing the West Gulf blockading squadron, on his arrival in the Gulf of Mexico, by boldness and skill, with admirable assistants, he went up to New Orleans triumphantly. He operated with great vigor on the Mississippi River, afterwards, between New Orleans and Vicksburg; and on July 16, 1862, was placed first on the list of proposed admirals. In 1863 he co-operated in the capture of Port Hudson, and in August, 1864, defeated the Confederate forces in Mobile Bay. His exploits in the Gulf region gave him great fame, and in December, 1864, he received the thanks

THE HARTFORD, FARRAGUT'S FLAG-SHIP.

of Congress, and the rank of vice-admiral was created expressly for him. In July, 1866, he was promoted to admiral. He visited Europe in 1867–68, and was received with the highest honors. He died in Portsmouth, N. H., Aug. 14, 1870. See MOBILE, NEW ORLEANS.

Farrar, TIMOTHY, jurist; born in New Ipswich, N. H., March 17, 1788; was associated in law practice with Daniel Webster in 1813–16; vice-president of the New England Historico-Genealogical Society i 1853–58. His publications include *Report of the Dartmouth College Case; Review of the Dred Scott Decision;* and *Manual of the Constitution of the United States.* He died in 1874.

Fasts, DAYS OF, observed by many nations from remote antiquity: by the Jews (2 Chron. xx. 3); by the Ninevites (Jonah iii.). Days of humiliation, fasting, and prayer appointed by the presidents of the United States: Wednesday, May 9, 1798, by President John Adams; Thursday, Jan. 12, 1815, by President Madison; last Thursday of September, 1861, by President Lincoln; Thursday, April 30, 1863, by President Lincoln; first Thursday in August, 1864, by President Lincoln; Thursday, June 1, 1865, by President Johnson; Monday, Sept. 26, 1881, by President Arthur.

Father of Waters. See MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

Fauntleroy, THOMAS TURNER; born in Richmond county, Va., Oct. 6, 1796; served in the War of 1812, and in the Seminole War; and in 1845 was given a command on the frontier of Texas to restrain the Indians. He joined the Confederate army in May, 1861; was commissioned brigadier-general by the Virginia convention and given command of Richmond, but the Confederate government refused to ratify his appointment. He died in Leesburg, Va., Sept. 12, 1883.

Fauquier, FRANCIS, colonial governor; born in Virginia about 1720. When Dinwiddie was recalled in 1758 Fauquier succeeded as lieutenant-governor; and when the Assembly in 1764 adopted Patrick Henry's resolution declaring that the sole right of taxation was in the colonial legislature, he dissolved the Assembly and also refused to summon the House of Burgesses to take action upon the invitation sent out by Massachusetts in 1765 for co-operation. He died March 3, 1768.

Fay, JONAS, patriot; born in Hardwick, Mass., Jan. 17, 1737; received a good English education, and was with a Massachusetts regiment at Fort Edward in 1756. He settled at Bennington in 1766, and became prominent in the disputes between New York and the New Hampshire grants. He was the agent of the "grants" sent to New York in 1772 to inform Governor Tryon of the grounds of their complaint. Mr. Fay was clerk to the convention (1774) that resolved to defend Ethan Allen and other leaders who were outlawed by the New York Assembly, by force if necessary. Being a physician, he was made surgeon of the expedition against Ticonderoga in May, 1775, and was afterwards in Colonel Warner's regiment. He was also a member of the convention in 1777 that declared the independence of Vermont, and was the author of the declaration then adopted, and of the communication announcing the fact to Congress. In 1782 he was judge of the Supreme Court of the State; and in conjunction with Ethan Allen, he published an account of the New York and New Hampshire controversy. He died in Bennington, Vt., March 6, 1818.

Fayetteville, N. C. On April 22, 1861, the Confederates seized the United States arsenal at this point. General Sherman occupied the town March 11–14, 1865, and destroyed the arsenal.

Fearing, BENJAMIN DANA, military officer; born in Harmar, O., Oct. 10, 1837; enlisted in the 2d Ohio Regiment at the outbreak of the Civil War; took part in the battles of Bull Run, Shiloh, Hoover's Gap, and at Chickamauga, where he was severely wounded. During Sherman's march to the sea he commanded a brigade and was again wounded at Bentonville. General Sherman spoke of him as "the bravest man that fought on Shiloh's field." He died in Harmar, O., Dec. 9, 1881.

Featherstonhaugh, GEORGE WILLIAM, traveller; born in 1780; made geological surveys in the West for the United States War Department in 1834–35. Owing to his knowledge of North America he was appointed a commissioner by Great Britain to determine the northwestern boundary between the United States and

Canada, under the Ashburton-Webster treaty. His publications include *Geological Report of the Elevated Country between the Missouri and Red Rivers; Observations on the Ashburton Treaty; Excursion through the Slave States*, etc. He died in Havre, France, Sept. 28, 1866.

Febiger, CHRISTIAN, military officer; born on Fünen Island, Denmark, in 1747; rendered military service before entering the American army in April, 1775; was in the battle of Bunker Hill, where he led a portion of a regiment of which he was adjutant; accompanied Arnold to Quebec a few months afterwards, where he was made a prisoner; and served with great fidelity throughout the war He was conspicuous in the assault on Stony Point (July, 1779), leading one of the attacking columns; also at Yorktown, where he commanded the 2d Virginia Regiment, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. From 1789 till his death, in Philadelphia, Sept. 20, 1796, Colonel Febiger was treasurer of the State of Pennsylvania.

Febiger, JOHN CARSON, naval officer; born in Pittsburg, Pa., Feb. 14, 1821; was a grandson of Col. Christian Febiger, of the Revolutionary army; was appointed midshipman in the navy in 1838; was promoted to rear-admiral, Feb. 4, 1882; and was retired July 1 of the same year. During the Civil War he served on the Western Gulf blockading and North Atlantic squadrons; and after the war served on the Asiatic squadron and as commandant of the Washington navy-yard. He died in Londonderry, Md., Oct. 9, 1898.

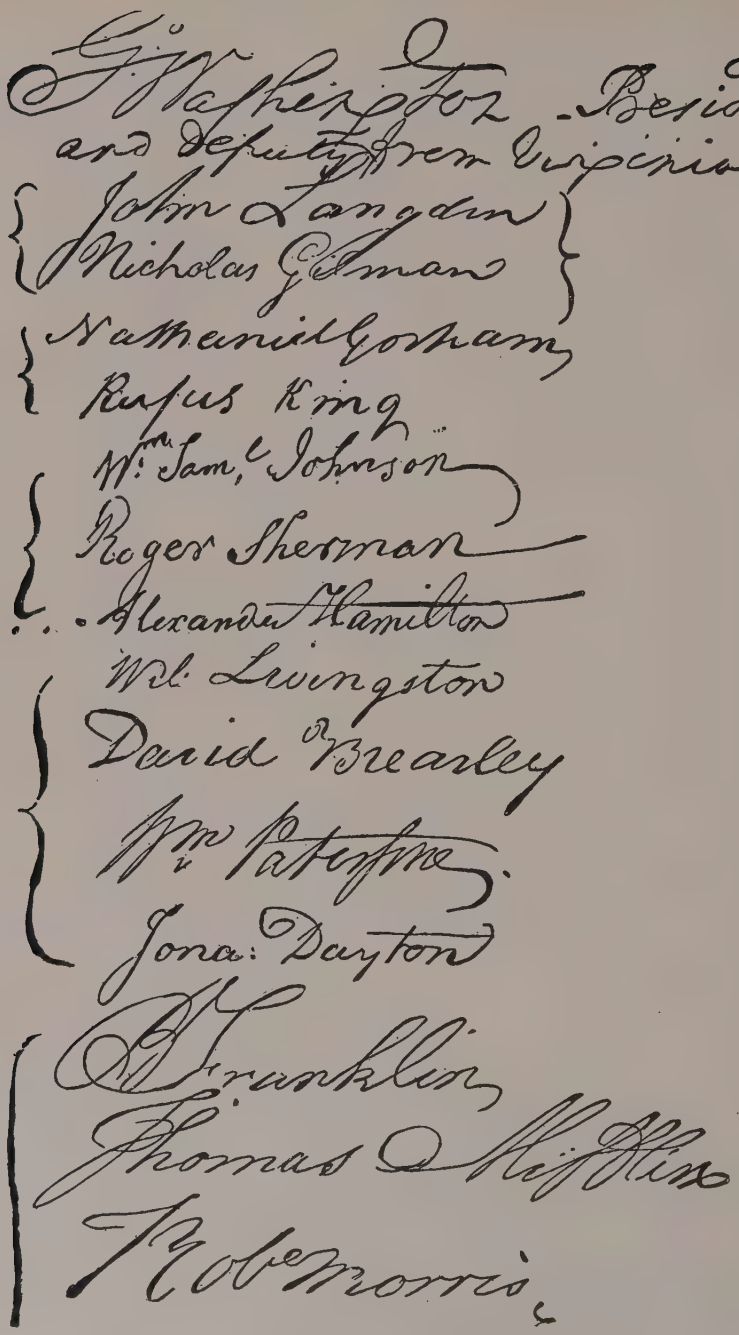
Federal City, THE. See WASHINGTON CITY.

Federal Constitution. See CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

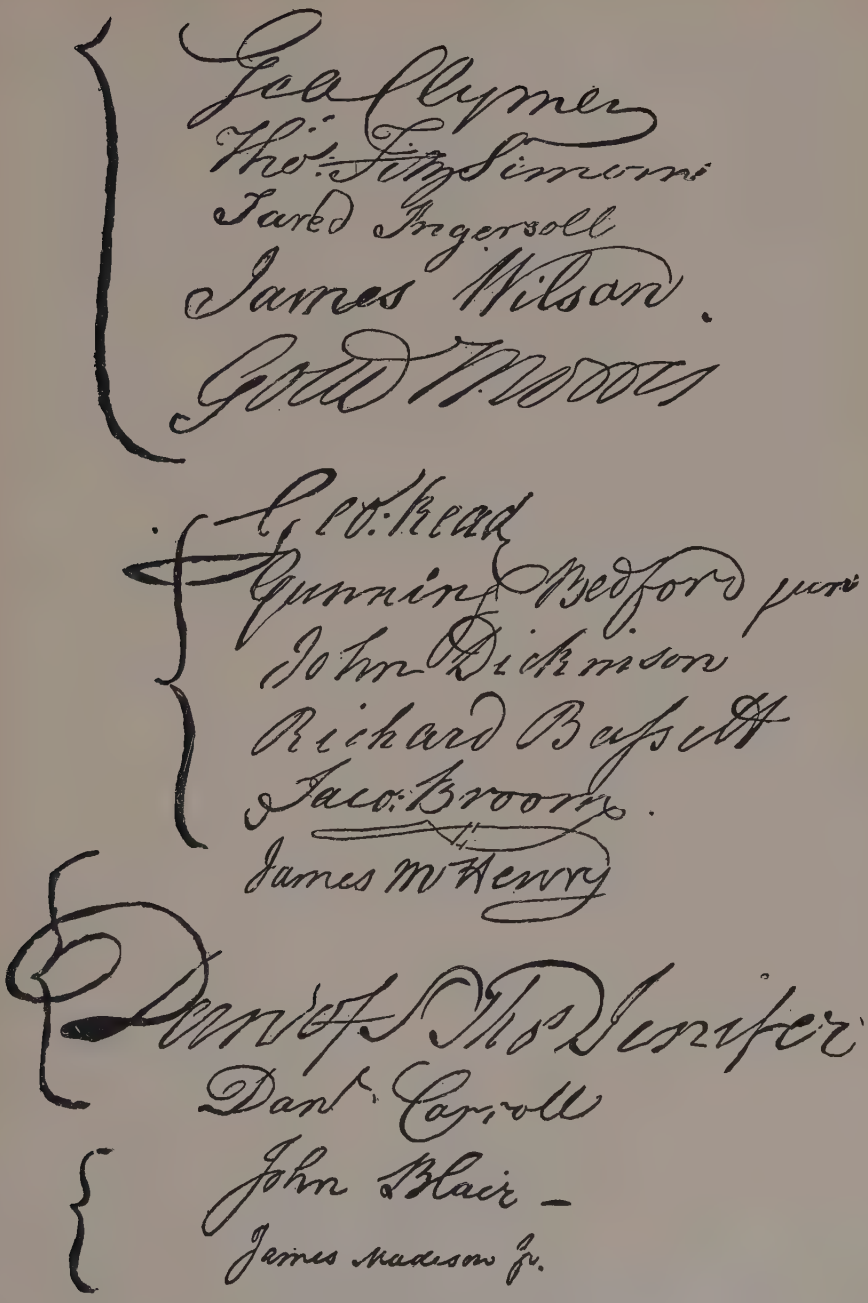
Federal Control of Elections. See ELECTIONS, FEDERAL CONTROL OF.

Federal Convention, THE. The representatives of twelve States assembled in convention at Philadelphia in the summer of 1787 to prepare a constitution of government for the United States of a national character. George Washington, a delegate from Virginia, was chosen president, and William Jackson, secretary. The convention was composed of some of the most illustrious citizens of the new republic. There was the aged Franklin, past eighty-one years of age, who had sat in a similar convention at ALBANY (*q. v.*) in 1754. John Dickinson, of Pennsylvania; W. S. Johnson, of Connecticut; and John Rutledge, of South Carolina, had been members of the STAMP ACT CONGRESS (*q. v.*) at New York in 1765. Washington, Dickinson, and Rutledge had been members of the Continental Congress of 1774. From that body also were Roger Sherman, of Connecticut; William Livingston, governor of New Jersey; George Read, of Delaware, and George Wythe, of Virginia. From among the signers of the Declaration of Independence, besides Franklin, Read, Wythe, and Sherman, had come Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, and Robert Morris, George Clymer, and James Wilson, of Pennsylvania. Eighteen members had, at the same time, been delegates to the Continental Congress; and among the whole number there were only twelve who had not at some time sat in that body. The officers of the Revolution were represented by Washington, Mifflin, Hamilton, and C. C. Pinckney. Of the members who had taken conspicuous posts since the Declaration of Independence, the most prominent were Hamilton, Madison, and Edmund Randolph, then the successor of Patrick Henry as governor of Virginia. The members who took the leading part in the debates were Gerry, Gorham, and King, of Massachusetts; Johnson, Sherman, and Ellsworth, of Connecticut; Hamilton and Lansing, of New York; Paterson, of New Jersey; Wilson, Gouverneur Morris, and Franklin, of Pennsylvania; Dickinson, of Delaware; Martin, of Maryland; Williamson, of North Carolina; and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney and Charles Pinckney, of South Carolina. Rhode Island refused to elect delegates to the convention.

The following is a full list of the members of the national convention: From New Hampshire—John Langdon, John Pickering, Nicholas Gilman, and Benjamin West; Massachusetts—Francis Dana, Elbridge Gerry, Nathaniel Gorham, Rufus King, and Caleb Strong; Connecticut—William Samuel Johnson, Roger Sherman, and Oliver Ellsworth; New York—Robert Yates, John Lansing, Jr., and Alexander Hamilton; New Jersey—David Brearley, William Churchill Hous-



SIGNATURES TO THE CONSTITUTION.



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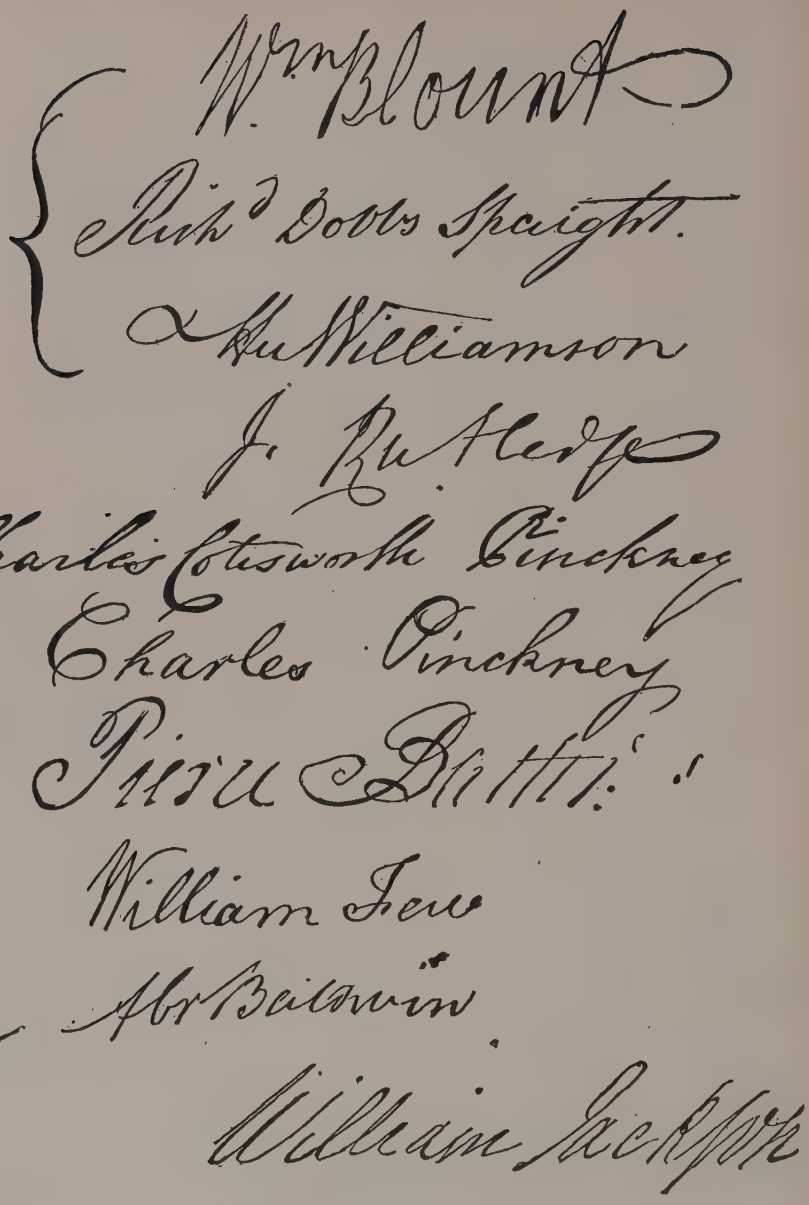


SIGNATURES TO THE CONSTITUTION.

ton, William Paterson, John Neilson, James Wilson, Gouverneur Morris, and William Livingston, Abraham Clark, and Benjamin Franklin; Delaware—George Jonathan Dayton; Pennsylvania—Thomas Read, Gunning Bedford, Jr., John Dickin-Mifflin, Robert Morris, George Clymer, son, Richard Bassett, and Jacob Broom; Jared Ingersoll, Thomas Fitzsimons, Maryland—James McHenry, Daniel of St.

Thomas Jenifer, Daniel Carroll, John Francis Mercer, and Luther Martin; Virginia—George Washington, Patrick Henry, Edmund Randolph, John Blair, James Madison, Jr., George Mason, and George Wythe. Patrick Henry having declined the appointment, George McClure was nominated to supply his place; North Carolina — Richard Caswell, Alexander Martin, William Richardson Davie, Richard Dobbs Spaight, and Willie Jones. Richard Caswell having resigned, William Blount was appointed a deputy in his place. Willie Jones having also declined his appointment, his place was supplied by Hugh Williamson; South Carolina—John Rutledge, Charles Pinckney, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, and Pierce Butler; Georgia—William Few, Abraham Baldwin, William Pierce, George Walton, William Houston, and Nathaniel Pendleton. Fac-similes of the signatures of the signers of the Constitution, copied from the original in the archives of the national government, are given on preceding pages. William Jackson was secretary.

A committee was appointed to report rules of proceeding by the convention. They copied them chiefly from those of Congress, and their report was adopted. Each State was to have one vote; seven States were to constitute a quorum; all committees were to be appointed by ballot; the doors were to be closed, and an injunction of secrecy was placed on the debates. The members were not even allowed to take copies of the entries on the journal. The injunction of secrecy as to the proceedings of the convention was never removed. At the final adjournment the journal, in accordance with a previous vote, was intrusted to the custody of Washington, by whom it was afterwards deposited in the Department of State. It was first printed, by order of Congress, in 1818. Robert Yates, one of the members from New York, took brief notes of the earlier debates. These were published in 1821, after Mr. Yates's death. Mr. Madison took more perfect notes of the whole convention, which were published in 1840; and a representation to the legislature of Maryland, by Luther Martin, furnished nearly all the material for the history of the NATIONAL CONSTITUTION (*q. v.*).

Federal Election Bill. See ELECTION BILL, FEDERAL.

Federal Government. See CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

The Constitution of the United States created three separate and distinct branches, each supreme in its own sphere—a legislature or Congress to make the laws; an executive or President to execute the laws; and a judiciary (Supreme Court, etc.) to interpret and enforce the laws. The powers granted by the Constitution—or implied from it—are divided among these three branches of the government, some to the legislature, some to the executive, and some to the judiciary.

The legislative powers are accorded by the Constitution to Congress, which consists of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The Senate is composed of two members from each State (whatever its size), chosen by the legislature thereof for a term of six years. The Senate, therefore, represents the States as such. It is a survival from the days of federation when the Congress consisted of one house only and in which each State had one vote. No State can be deprived of representation in the Senate without its own consent. This is one of the irrepealable provisions in the Constitution; not even the people can change it.

Senators must be at least thirty years old, and must be actual residents of the States from which they are chosen. In cases of vacancy, if the legislature is not in session, the governor of the State may name some one to fill the place until the legislature can meet and elect. If the legislature adjourns without having elected anyone, the place remains vacant. The governor has no power to fill it.

The Senate is a continuing body; it is always in existence. One-third of its members go out of office every two years, while the other two-thirds hold over. Therefore, there is always a majority of the Senate sworn in, and the Senate itself is

qualified to transact business at any time when called together.

The Vice-President of the United States is the president of the Senate *ex officio*. All other Senate officers are elected by the Senate and retain their office until their successors are elected. The Vice-President presides, but has no vote, unless the Senate is a tie on a question, in which case he has the casting vote. At the beginning of each Congress, to provide against the temporary or permanent absence of the Vice-President, the Senate chooses a temporary president (or president *pro tem.*), who retains his ordinary vote, and having once voted has, of course, no casting vote if the Senate be equally divided. The president *pro tem.* is not Vice-President, and is not in the order of the Presidential succession.

The House of Representatives.—This is composed of an indeterminate number of members elected by the people of the States for a term of two years. Every State must have at least one representative. Additional representatives are apportioned according to population. (See APPORTIONMENT, CONGRESSIONAL.)

The first House of Representatives numbered 65, apportioned by the Constitution itself in advance of a census. The first House after the first census numbered 105, one for every 30,000 of the population. After March 4, 1913, the number of representatives will be 433, one member for each 211,897 of the population.

If a State disqualifies any class of its own citizens for voting for its own legislature, by so doing it disqualifies that class for voting for members of the House of Representatives. Vacancies in the House of Representatives must be filled by elections, which, if need be, must be specially called. The governor of the State has no power to fill such vacancies even temporarily.

Representatives are usually chosen from districts, but they may be chosen on a general ticket by all the voters of the State, in which case they are stated to be chosen "at large."

Representatives must be at least twenty-five years of age; they must reside in the State, though not necessarily in the districts from which they are chosen.

The House of Representatives is not a continuing body, like the Senate. It goes out of existence every two years on March 4th, and remains out of existence until the members elected meet and reorganize. Ordinarily in odd years there is no House of Representatives between March 4th and the first Monday in December. The members of such House are, of course, in existence, but the House as a whole is not.

The clerk of the House, an elective office, is the sole bond between one House of Representatives and the succeeding one. It is he who takes the chair and calls the roll at the meeting of a new Congress. His presence and assistance, however, can be and has been dispensed with at times.

The House chooses all its officers, including the presiding officer, who is called the Speaker. The Speaker has only his vote as a member, he has no casting vote. A tie vote in the House decides the question in the negative.

The two Houses once elected, both Senators and Representatives are the sole judges of their political actions; neither the legislature nor the people of their States have any right to control them. They can, however, be defeated for re-election. Any act of the legislature directing the Senators from their State, or requesting its Representatives, to do this or that, is absolutely ineffective legally, and may be disregarded, though such action, of course, has great influence on those to whom it is addressed.

Each House is the sole judge of the qualifications of its members. A majority can decide for or against the admission of a member; once in, however, it takes a two-thirds vote to expel him.

In the case of Mr. Roberts of Utah, the House decided that it had power to declare by a majority vote that an apparently duly admitted member was not really a member at all, because being a polygamist he had never been qualified to become a member.

Senators and Representatives are paid for their services, receiving $7,500 each per annum. While attending sessions, members of Congress are exempt from arrest for all cases, except felony, treason, or breach of the peace. They are not responsible to anyone outside of their own House, nor for anything they may say in that House. No person holding any office

under the United States may be a member of either House while he continues holding such office, nor may any Senator or Representative be appointed, during the term for which he was elected, to any civil office under the United States which was created or the pay of which was increased during his term. When a United States officeholder is elected to Congress, he may hold the office until he is ready to take his seat, when he must resign. A State officer may, however, be also a Senator or Representative. Senator D. B. Hill was Governor of New York and Senator at the same time.

Neither House, during the session of Congress, may adjourn without the consent of the other for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses are sitting. If the two Houses cannot agree as to the time of adjournment, the President may adjourn them to such time as he may see fit. There has, however, never been any occasion for him to exercise this power.

The President.—The executive branch comprises by far the larger part of the officers and employees of the United States government, including all except the members and employes of Congress and of the courts.

The President is vested by the Constitution with "all executive authority," and is usually spoken of as "the Executive." Of all the officials in the executive branch only the President and the Vice-President are elected; all the rest are appointed either by the President, with the concurrence of the Senate, or by persons, usually the heads of departments, authorized by Congress to make such appointments.

The President must be at least thirty-five years of age, and a "natural born citizen" of the United States. A naturalized citizen cannot become President.

The President receives a salary of $75,000 a year and allowances, which vary from year to year. The President and the Vice-President are elected not by the people, but by the States, each State casting as many votes as it has Senators and Representatives in Congress. As each State has two Senators and at least one Representative, no State can cast less than three votes for President and Vice-President. These votes are cast by electors, who are chosen by the several States, by whatever method the legislature may decree, except that Congress may prescribe, and has prescribed, the date on which the selection is to be made.

Electors have been chosen by the State in four ways. First, by the legislature by joint ballot; second, by separate vote of the two Houses of the legislature; third, by popular vote by districts; fourth, by a general State vote. Selection by districts was the rule at the beginning, and as late as 1828 one-third of the States followed that method. As it resulted, however, in breaking up the State vote, giving some of its votes to one candidate and some to another, it was gradually abolished. Since 1872 all the States, excepting Michigan, which followed the district system from 1891–93, have chosen their electors on a general ticket.

This system of electors sometimes results in the election of a President who has much less than a majority of the popular vote. The Union is a union of States, and if the States are to elect, no more natural and practicable means can be devised than that they should cast their votes by means of delegates.

The only restriction is that no one may be an elector who holds an office of profit or trust under the United States. When chosen there is no legal obligation resting on any elector to vote for any particular candidate. This restriction, therefore, is entirely a moral one.

Electors do not meet in general convention, they meet in separate State conventions on the second Monday in January, casting their votes and sending three certified notices of the result, one to the president of the Senate at Washington by messenger, a second one to the president of the Senate by mail, a third to the judge of the district in which the electors meet.

On the second Wednesday in February, the Senators assemble with the Representatives in the hall of the House of Representatives to count the votes. The president of the Senate opens and announces them and hands them to the tellers to be footed up.

To be elected, a candidate must have a majority of all the electoral votes. If no one receives such a majority, the House of Representatives chooses the President

by balloting for the three candidates having the most electoral votes. The State idea is carried out, as the members of the House vote not as individuals, but as States, each State having one vote.

In all the elections from 1872 to the present time, with the exception of that of 1876, the Electoral College has been divided between two parties, and there has been no possible chance for the House to act. In case no candidate for Vice-President receives a majority, the Senate elects one from the two persons having the largest number of votes.

If the election of a President depends on the House of Representatives, and if that body fails to choose a President by the 4th of March following the election, then the Vice-President chosen by the Senate becomes President. Only one Vice-President, R. M. Johnson, has been chosen by the Senate.

In case the President dies, resigns, or is unable to discharge the duties of the office, the Vice-President succeeds. If the Vice-President in turn fails, the members of the Cabinet succeed in the following order: State, Treasury, War, Attorney-General, Postmaster-General, Navy, Interior.

The President can be removed from office only by impeachment and conviction of high crimes and misdemeanor. Only one President, Mr. Johnson, has ever been impeached, and he was acquitted.

In the United States government the heads of the Departments are the President's constitutional advisers, and constitute a Cabinet, each with a salary of $12,000 a year. They are appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate, hold office at the President's will, and are, under him, the executive officers of the general government. Each Department has its official seal for public documents. The Departments of State, Treasury, and War were created in 1789, and the Secretaries were members of the Cabinet. The Navy Department was added in 1798, with its Secretary a member of the Cabinet. The office of Attorney-General was created in 1789, but the Attorney-General was not a member of the Cabinet until 1814, when Richard Rush was appointed to the Attorney-Generalship, which now became a Cabinet office. The Post-office Department was a branch of the Treasury until 1829, when W. T. Barry, the first recognized Postmaster-General, was called to the Cabinet by President Jackson. Department of the Interior, created March 3, 1849, and its Secretary a member of the Cabinet. Department of Agriculture, created Feb. 11, 1889, the Secretary a member of the Cabinet. The Department of Commerce and Labor was created in 1903, the Secretary a member of the Cabinet. See CABINET.

The judiciary branch provided for in the Constitution consists of the Supreme Court and of certain inferior courts that have been established by Congress. In its organization and composition, the judiciary is subject to both the Executive and the Congress.

Congress establishes the courts (excepting the Supreme Court) and the Executive appoints the judges. Once established, however, neither the Executive nor Congress has any further authority over them unless the appointees render themselves liable to impeachment for "high crimes and misdemeanors."

At the present time there are 9 Supreme Court judges, 31 Circuit judges, and 97 District judges. The Supreme Court judges sit together in court in Washington. District judges sit separately. They have jurisdiction over smaller areas.

There is also a Court of Claims, which considers claims against the government; a Court of Customs Appeals; a Commerce Court, and the Courts of the District of Columbia.

United States judges are nominated by the President, subject to confirmation by the Senate. Since the foundation of the government, five judges have been impeached and two have been convicted (Judge Pickering, who was insane; and Judge Humphreys, charged with aiding the Confederate States).

Congress fixes the salaries of the judges, which cannot be diminished during their term in office.

In 1869 Congress passed an act providing that any United States judge who had held his commission ten years and had become seventy years of age could resign and receive full pay for life. There have been a number of such retirements.

The officers of the United States Courts are attorneys, marshals, reporters, and

clerks. The attorneys and marshals are appointed by the President and the Senate; the other officers are appointed by the courts themselves.

The attorney represents the government, investigates charges, and prosecutes. The marshal serves subpœnas, makes arrests, executes judgments, etc. The reporter keeps the record of the opinions of the courts. The clerk keeps a record of the proceedings, issues subpœnas, etc.

There is one court which is not a permanent one, nor, strictly speaking, a part of the judiciary branch. It is a court convened to try impeachments brought against high officers of government, in which the Senate, sometimes presided over by the Chief-Justice, sits as a jury, while the House of Representatives appears, by a committee, as prosecuting attorney. Only nine times in the history of the United States has such a court been convened.

THE EXECUTIVE

President—Woodrow Wilson, of New Jersey, salary, $75,000.
Vice-President—Thomas Riley Marshall, of Indiana, salary, $12,000.

THE CABINET

In order of Presidential succession.

Secretary of State—William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska.
Secretary of the Treasury—William Gibbs McAdoo, of New York.
Secretary of War—Lindley Miller Garrison, of New Jersey.
Attorney-General—Thomas Watt Gregory, of Texas.
Postmaster-General—Albert Sidney Burleson, of Texas.
Secretary of the Navy—Josephus Daniels, of North Carolina.
Secretary of the Interior—Franklin Knight Lane, of California.
Secretary of Agriculture—David Franklin Houston, of Missouri.
Secretary of Commerce—William Cox Redfield, of New York.
Secretary of Labor—William Bauchop Wilson, of Pennsylvania.

The salaries of the Cabinet officers are $12,000 each.

THE JUDICIARY

SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES

Chief-Justice of the United States—Edward D. White, of Louisiana, born 1845, appointed 1910.

	Born	App.
Asso.-Justice—Joseph McKenna, Cal.	1843	1898
Asso.-Justice—Oliver W. Holmes, Mass.	1841	1902
Asso.-Justice—William R. Day, Ohio	1849	1903
Asso. Justice—Charles E. Hughes, N. Y.	1862	1910
Asso.-Justice—W. Van Devanter, Wyo.	1859	1910
Asso.-Justice—Joseph R. Lamar, Ga.	1857	1910
Asso.-Justice—Mahlon Pitney, N. J.	1858	1912
Asso.-Justice—James C. McReynolds, Tenn.	1862	1914

The salary of the Chief-Justice of the United States is $15,000; Asso.-Justices, $14,500 each.

CIRCUIT COURTS OF APPEALS OF THE UNITED STATES

The Circuit Courts were abolished Jan. 1, 1912. In their place are CIRCUIT COURTS OF APPEALS, having the same jurisdiction in the nine circuits as enumerated below.

Cir.	Judges.	App.
1.	George H. Bingham, R. I.	1913
	William L. Putnam, Me.	1892
	Frederick Dodge, Mass.	1912
2.	E. Henry Lacombe, N. Y.	1887
	Alfred C. Coxe, N. Y.	1902
	Henry G. Ward, N. Y.	1907
	Henry W. Rogers, Conn.	1913
	Martin A. Knapp, D. C.	1910
3.	Victor B. Woolley, Del.	1914
	Joseph Buffington, Pa.	1906
	William M. Lanning, N. J.	1909
	John B. McPherson, Pa.	1912
4.	Charles A. Woods, S. C.	1913
	Jeter C. Pritchard, N. C.	1904
5.	Don A. Pardee, Ga.	1881
	A. P. McCormick, Tex.	1892
	.....	
6.	Arthur C. Denison, Mich.	1911
	John W. Warrington, Ohio	1909
	Loyall E. Knappen, Mich.	1910
7.	.....	
	William H. Seaman, Wis.	1905
	Christian C. Kohlsaat, Ill.	1905
	Julian W. Mack, D. C.	1911
8.	Walter H. Sanborn, Minn.	1892
	William C. Hook, Kan.	1903
	John Emmett Carland, D. C.	1911
	Walter I. Smith, Ia.	1911
	Elmer B. Adams, Mo.	1905
9.	William B. Gilbert, Ore.	1892
	Erskine M. Ross, Cal.	1895
	William W. Morrow, Cal.	1897
	William H. Hunt, D. C.	1911

Salaries, $7,000 each. The judges of each circuit and the justice of the Supreme Court for the circuit constitute a Circuit Court of Appeals. The FIRST CIRCUIT consists of Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island. SECOND—Connecticut, New York, Vermont. THIRD—Delaware, New Jersey, Pennsylvania. FOURTH—Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia. FIFTH—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, Texas. SIXTH—Kentucky, Michigan, Ohio, Tennessee. SEVENTH—Illinois, Indiana, Wisconsin. EIGHTH—Arkansas, Colorado, Oklahoma, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Wyoming. NINTH—Alaska, Arizona, California, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Washington, Hawaii.

UNITED STATES COURT OF CLAIMS

Chief-Justice—Edward K. Campbell, Ala.; *Associate-Justices*—Charles B. Howry, Miss.; Fenton W. Booth, Ill.; Geo. W. Atkinson, W. Va.; Samuel S. Barney, Wis. Salaries, chief-justice, $6,500; justices, $6,000.

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

DISTRICT COURTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Salaries of District Judges, $6,000 each.

Districts.	*Judges.*	*Addresses.*	*App.*
Ala.: N. & M.	Thomas G. Jones	Montgomery	1901
" N.	William I. Grubb	Birmingham	1909
" S. D.	H. T. Toulmin	Mobile	1887
Alaska	Thomas R. Lyons	Juneau	1909
"	C. D. Murane	Nome	1910
"	Edward E. Cushman	Valdez	1909
"	P. D. Overfield	Fairbanks	1909
Ark.: E. D.	Jacob Trieber	Little Rock	1901
" W. D.	F. A. Woumans	Fort Smith	1911
Cal.: N. D.	John J. DeHaven	San Francisco	1897
"	Wm. C. Van Fleet	San Francisco	1907
" S. D.	Olin Wellborn	Los Angeles	1895
Colorado	Robert E. Lewis	Denver	1906
Connecticut	James P. Platt	Hartford	1902
Delaware	Ed. G. Bradford	Wilmington	1897
Florida: N. D.	W. B. Sheppard	Pensacola	1908
" S. D.	James W. Locke	Jacksonville	1872
Georgia: N. D.	Wm. T. Newman	Atlanta	1886
" S. D.	Emory Speer	Macon	1885
Hawaii	Sanford B. Dole	Honolulu	1909
"	Chas. F. Clemons	Honolulu	1911
Idaho	Frank S. Dietrich	Boisé	1907
Illinois: N. D.	Ken. M. Landis	Chicago	1905
"	G. A. Carpenter	Chicago	1910
" S. D.	J. O. Humphrey	Springfield	1901
" E.	F. M. Wright	Urbana	1905
Indiana	A. B. Anderson	Indianapolis	1902
Iowa: N. D.	Henry T. Reed	Cresco	1904
" S. D.	S. McPherson	Red Oak	1900
Kansas	John C. Pollock	Kansas City	1903
Kentucky: W. D.	Walter Evans	Louisville	1899
" E. D.	A. M. J. Cochran	Maysville	1901
Louisiana: E. D.	Rufus E. Foster	New Orleans	1909
" W. D.	Aleck Boarman	Shreveport	1881
Maine	Clarence Hale	Portland	1902
Maryland	Thomas J. Morris	Baltimore	1879
"	John C. Rose	Baltimore	1910
Massachusetts	Frederic Dodge	Boston	1905
Michigan: E. D.	Alexis C. Angell	Detroit	1911
" W. D.	A. C. Denison	Grand Rapids	1910
Minnesota	Chas. A. Willard	Minneapolis	1909
"	Page Morris	Duluth	1903
Mississippi: N. & S.	Henry C. Niles	Kosciusko	1892
Montana	Carl Rasch	Helena	1910
Missouri: E. D.	David P. Dyer	St. Louis	1907
" W. D.	A. S. Van Valkenburg	Kansas City	1910
Nebraska	Wm. H. Munger	Omaha	1897
"	Thomas C. Munger	Lincoln	1907
Nevada	E. S. Farrington	Carson City	1907
New Hampshire	Edgar Aldrich	Littleton	1891
New Jersey	John Rellstab	Trenton	1909
"	Joseph Cross	Elizabeth	1905
New York: N. D.	George W. Ray	Norwich	1902
" W. D.	John R. Hazel	Buffalo	1900
" S. D.		New York City	....
" S. D.	George C. Holt	New York City	1903
" S. D.	Chas. M. Hough	New York City	1906
" S. D.	Learned Hand	New York City	1909
" E. D.	T. I. Chatfield	Brooklyn	1907
" E. D.	V. V. Veeder	Brooklyn	1911

DISTRICT COURTS OF THE UNITED STATES.—*Continued.*

Districts.	*Judges.*	*Addresses.*	*App.*
North Carolina: E. D.	H. G. Connor	Wilson	1909
" W. D.	James E. Boyd	Greensboro	1901
North Dakota	Chas F. Amidon	Fargo	1897
Ohio: N. D.	John M. Killits	Toledo	1910
" N. D.	W. L. Day	Cleveland	1911
" S. D.	H. C. Hollister	Cincinnati	1910
" S. D.	John E. Sater	Columbus	1909
Oklahoma: E. D.	R. E. Campbell	Muskogee	1908
" W. D.	John H. Cotteral	Guthrie	1908
Oregon	C. E. Wolverton	Portland	1906
"	Robert S. Bean	Portland	1909
Pennsylvania: E. D.	J. B. McPherson	Philadelphia	1899
" E. D.	James B. Holland	Philadelphia	1904
" M. D.	James B. Witmer	Sunbury	1911
" W. D.	James S. Young	Pittsburgh	1908
" W. D.	Charles P. Orr	Pittsburgh	1909
Rhode Island	A. L. Brown	Providence	1896
South Carolina	H. A. M. Smith	Charleston	1911
South Dakota	James D. Elliott	Sioux Falls	1911
Tennessee: E. & M.	Ed. T. Sanford	Knoxville	1908
" W. D.	John E. McCall	Memphis	1905
Texas: E. D.	Gordon Russell	Sherman	1910
" W. D.	Thomas S. Maxey	Austin	1888
" N. D.	Edw. R. Meek	Dallas	1899
" S. D.	W. T. Burns	Houston	1902
Utah	J. A. Marshall	Salt Lake City	1896
Vermont	James L. Martin	Brattleboro	1906
Virginia: E. D.	E. Waddill, Jr.	Richmond	1898
" W. D.	H. C. McDowell	Lynchburg	1901
Washington: W. D.	C. H. Hanford	Seattle	1890
" W. D.	G. Donworth	Seattle	1909
" E. D.	F. H. Rudkin	Spokane	1911
West Virginia: N. D.	A. G. Dayton	Phillippi	1905
" S. D.	B. F. Keller	Charleston	1901
Wisconsin: E. D.	Joseph V. Quarles	Milwaukee	1905
" W. D.	A. L. Sanborn	Madison	1905
Wyoming	John A. Riner	Cheyenne	1890

UNITED STATES COMMERCE COURT

This court was established by act of Congress approved June 18, 1910, and was abolished by the same authority Dec. 31, 1913. The judges were circuit judges designated for service in this court. Upon the expiration of the term for which they were appointed they did not cease to be judges, but were assigned for duty within some judicial circuit, and other Circuit judges were designated by the Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court for service in this court. The following were the judges of the court:

Judges.	Commissioned.	Term.
Martin A. Knapp, *President*	December 31, 1910.	5 Years.
Robert W. Archbald	January 31, 1911.	4 Years.
William H. Hunt	January 31, 1911.	3 Years.
John E. Carland	January 31, 1911.	2 Years.
Julian W. Mack	January 31, 1911.	1 Year.

THE ARMY.

GENERAL STAFF OF THE ARMY.

Major-General Leonard Wood, Chief of Staff.

Major-General William H. Carter.
Brigadier-General Robert K. Evans, Chief of Division of Militia Affairs.
Brigadier-General Erasmus M. Weaver, Chief of Coast Artillery.

Four colonels.
Six lieutenant-colonels.
Twelve majors.
Twenty captains.

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

GENERAL OFFICERS OF THE LINE.

Rank.	*Name.*	*Command.*	*Headquarters.*
Maj.-Gen.	Leonard Wood	Chief of Staff	Washington, D. C.
"	Frederick D. Grant	Eastern Division	Governors Island, N. Y.
"	J. Franklin Bell	The Philippines Division	Manila, P. I.
"	Thomas H. Barry	Superintendent Military Acad'y.	West Point, N. Y.
"	William H. Carter	Assistant to the Chief of Staff.	Washington, D. C.
"	Arthur Murray	Western Division	San Francisco, Cal.
Brig.-Gen.	Frederick Funston	Department of Luzon	Manila, P. I.
"	Tasker H. Bliss	Department of the East	Fort Totten, N. Y.
"	Albert L. Mills	Department of the Gulf	Atlanta, Ga.
"	John J. Pershing	Department of Mindanao	Zamboanga, P. I.
"	W. W. Wotherspoon	Gen. Staff Pres. Army War College	Washington, D. C.
"	Ramsay D. Potts	Central Division	Chicago, Ill.
"	Daniel H. Brush	Department of California	Fort Miley, Cal.
"	Frederick A. Smith	Department of the Missouri	Omaha, Neb.
"	Marion P. Maus	Department of the Columbia	Vancouver Bks., Wash'n.
"	Ralph W. Hoyt	Department of the Lakes	St. Paul, Minn.
"	Montg'ry M. Macomb	Department of Hawaii	Honolulu, H. T.
"	Joseph W. Duncan	Department of Texas	San Antonio, Tex.
"	Walter S. Schuyler	Fort Riley	Kansas.
"	Robert K. Evans	Chief Div. Mil. Affairs, Gen. Staff	Washington, D. C.
"	George S. Anderson	Department of the Visayas	Iloilo, P. I.

CHIEFS OF STAFF CORPS AND BUREAUS OF THE WAR DEPARTMENT.

Maj.-Gen.	Fred. C. Ainsworth	The Adjutant-General	Washington, D. C.
Brig.-Gen.	William P. Hall	Adjutant-General	Washington, D. C.
"	Ernest A. Garlington	Inspector-General	Washington, D. C.
"	Enoch H. Crowder	Judge-Advocate-General	Washington, D. C.
"	James B. Aleshire	Quartermaster-General	Washington, D. C.
"	Henry G. Sharpe	Commissary-General	Washington, D. C.
"	George H. Torney	Surgeon-General	Washington, D. C.
"	Charles H. Whipple	Paymaster-General	Washington, D. C.
"	William H. Bixby	Chief of Engineers	Washington, D. C.
"	William Crozier	Chief of Ordnance	Washington, D. C.
"	James Allen	Chief Signal Officer	Washington, D. C.
"	Clarence R. Edwards	Chief Bureau Insular Affairs	Washington, D. C.

THE NAVY.

ADMIRAL OF THE NAVY.

Rank.	*Name.*	*Duty.*	*Where Stationed.*
Admiral	George Dewey	President General Board	Washington, D. C.

REAR-ADMIRALS—ACTIVE LIST.

Rank.	*Name.*	*Duty.*	*Where Stationed.*
Rear-Adm'l	William P. Potter	Aid for Personnel, Navy Dept.	Washington, D. C.
"	Newton E. Potter	Member General Board	Washington, D. C.
"	Joseph B. Murdock	Comdg. Asiatic Fleet	Flagship Saratoga.
"	Hugo Osterhaus	Comdg. Atlantic Fleet	Flagship Connecticut.
"	Charles E. Vreeland	Aid for Inspections, Navy Dept.	Washington, D. C.
"	Aaron Ward	Comdg. 3d Div. Atlantic Fleet	Flagship Minnesota.
"	Sidney A. Staunton	Member General Board	Washington, D. C.
"	Chauncey Thomas	Comdg. Pacific Fleet	Flagship California.
"	Lucien Young	Commandant Naval Station	Key West, Fla.
"	W. H. H. Sutherland	Comdg. 2d Div. Pacific Fleet	Flagship W. Virginia.
"	Albert Mertz	Commandant Naval Station	Cavite, P. I.
"	Vinc'don L. Cottman	Commandant Navy Yard	Puget Sound, Wash.
"	Thomas B. Howard	Comdg. 4th Div. Atlantic Fleet	Flagship Georgia.
"	Walter C. Cowles	Commandant Naval Station	Hawaii, H. T.
"	Austin M. Knight	President Board on Naval Ordnance, Navy Dept.	Washington, D. C.
"	Charles J. Badger	Comdg. 2d Div. Atlantic Fleet	Flagship Louisiana.
"	Reginald F. Nicholson	Chief Bureau Navigation	Washington, D. C.
"	Chas. B. T. Moore	Commandant Naval Training Sta.	San Francisco, Cal.
"	Alfred Reynolds	Governor, Naval Home	Philadelphia, Pa.
"	Bradley A. Fiske	Comdg. 5th Div. Atlantic Fleet	Flagship Washington.
"	George B. Ransom	Inspector Engineering Material	Boston, Mass.
"	Abraham V. Zane	President Board Inspections for Shore Stations, Navy Dept.	Washington, D. C.
"	John R. Edwards	Gen'l Inspr. Mach'y for Navy	Philadelphia, Pa.
"	James M. Helm	Commandant Navy Yard	Charleston, S. C.
"	Albert B. Willits	Navy Department	Washington, D. C.
"	C. McR. Winslow	Naval War College	Newport, R. I.
"	Nathaniel R. Usher	Pres. Exam. and Ret. Boards	Washington, D. C.
"	Frank F. Fletcher	Aid for Material, Navy Dept.	Washington, D. C.

THE SIXTY-SECOND CONGRESS.

BEGAN MARCH 4, 1911, AND ENDS MARCH 4, 1913.

SENATE.

President .....James S. Sherman, Rep., of New York.
Secretary .....Charles G. Bennett, Rep., of New York.

TERMS EXPIRE.	Senators.	Politics.	Post-Office Address.	Place of Birth.	Year of Birth.	Present Vocation.
	ALABAMA.					
1915	Jos. F. Johnston †	D.	Birmingham .	North Carolina .	1843	Public Official.
1919	John H. Bankhead † ...	D.	Fayette	Alabama	1842	Farmer.
	ARKANSAS.					
1915	James P. Clarke.....	D.	Little Rock ..	Mississippi	1854	Lawyer.
1913	Jefferson Davis	D.	Little Rock ..	Arkansas	1862	Lawyer.
	CALIFORNIA.					
1915	George C. Perkins	R.	Oakland	Maine	1839	Merchant.
1917	John D. Works‡.....	R.	Los Angeles ..	Indiana	1847	Public Official.
	COLORADO.					
....	.....	..	.....	.....	.....	.....
1913	Simon Guggenheim	R.	Denver	Pennsylvania ..	1867	Retired.
	CONNECTICUT.					
1915	Frank B. Brandegee ...	R.	New London .	Connecticut	1864	Insurance.
1917	George P. McLean	R.	Simsbury	Connecticut	1857	Lawyer.
	DELAWARE.					
1917	Henry A. DuPont ‡	R.	Winterthur ..	Delaware	1838	Public Official.
1913	H. A. Richardson	R.	Dover	Delaware	1853	Retired.
	FLORIDA.					
1915	Duncan U. Fletcher ...	D.	Jacksonville .	Georgia	1859	Lawyer.
1917	Nathan P. Bryan	D.	Jacksonville .	Florida	1872	Lawyer.
	GEORGIA.					
1913	Augustus O. Bacon † ..	D.	Macon	Georgia	1839	Lawyer.
1915	Hoke Smith	D.	Atlanta	N. Carolina	1855	Lawyer.
	IDAHO.					
1915	Weldon B. Heyburn ...	R.	Wallace	Pennsylvania ..	1852	Lawyer.
1913	William E. Borah	R.	Boisé	Illinois	1865	Lawyer.
	ILLINOIS.					
1915	William Lorimer	R.	Chicago	England	1861	Banker.
1913	Shelby M. Cul'om	R.	Springfield ...	Kentucky	1829	Public Official.
	INDIANA.					
1915	Benj. F. Shively	D.	South Bend ..	Indiana	1857	Lawyer.
1917	John W. Kern	D.	Indianapolis .	Indiana	1849	Lawyer.
	IOWA.					
1915	Albert B. Cummins	R.	Des Moines ..	Pennsylvania ..	1850	Lawyer.
1913	Wm. S. Kenyon	R.	Fort Dodge ..	Ohio	1869	Lawyer.
	KANSAS.					
1915	Joseph L. Bristow	R.	Salina	Kentucky	1861	Editor.
1913	Charles Curtis	R.	Topeka	Kansas	1860	Lawyer.
	KENTUCKY.					
1915	Wm. O. Bradley ‡	R.	Louisville ...	Kentucky	1847	Lawyer.
1913	T. H. Paynter	D.	Frankfort ...	Kentucky	1851	Lawyer.
	LOUISIANA.					
1915	John R. Thornton † ...	D.	Alexandria ..	Louisiana	1846	Lawyer.
1913	Murphy J. Foster	D.	Franklin	Louisiana	1849	Lawyer.
	MAINE.					
1917	Chas. F. Johnson	D.	Waterville ...	Maine	1859	Lawyer.
1913	Obadiah Gardner	D.	Rockland	Michigan	1852	Farmer.
	MARYLAND.					
1915	John W. Smith	D.	Snow Hill ...	Maryland	1845	Lumber.
1917	Isidor Rayner	D.	Baltimore ...	Maryland	1850	Lawyer.
	MASSACHUSETTS.					
1917	Henry C. Lodge	R.	Nahant	Massachusetts ..	1850	Literature.
1913	Winthrop M. Crane ...	R.	Dalton	Massachusetts ..	1853	Manufacturer.
	MICHIGAN.					
1917	C. E. Townsend	R.	Jackson	Michigan	1856	Lawyer.
1913	William A. Smith	R.	Grand Rapids	Michigan	1859	Lawyer.
	MINNESOTA.					
1917	Moses E. Clapp	R.	St. Paul	Indiana	1851	Public Official.
1913	Knute Nelson ‡	R.	Alexandria ..	Norway	1843	Lawyer.
	MISSISSIPPI.					
1913	Le Roy Percy	D.	Greenville ...	Mississippi	1860	Lawyer.
1917	John S. Williams	D.	Yazoo.....	Tennessee	1854	Lawyer.
	MISSOURI.					
1915	William J. Stone.....	D.	Jefferson City	Kentucky	1848	Lawyer.
1917	James A. Reed	D.	Kansas City .	Ohio	1861	Lawyer.
	MONTANA.					
1917	Henry L. Myers	D.	Hamilton	Missouri	1862	Lawyer.
1913	Joseph M. Dixon	R.	Missoula	N. Carolina	1867	Lawyer.
	NEBRASKA.					
1917	G. M. Hitchcock	D.	Omaha	Nebraska	1859	Journalist.
1913	Norris Brown	R.	Kearney	Iowa	1863	Lawyer.

SENATE—*Continued.*

Terms Expire.	Senators.	Politics.	Post-Office Address.	Place of Birth.	Year of Birth.	Present Vocation.
	NEVADA.					
1915	F. G. Newlands	D.	Reno	Mississippi	1848	Public Official.
1917	George S. Nixon	R.	Reno	California	1860	Banker.
	NEW HAMPSHIRE					
1915	Jacob H. Gallinger	R.	Concord	Canada	1837	Public Official
1913	H. E. Burnham	R.	Manchester	N. Hampshire	1844	Lawyer.
	NEW JERSEY.					
1917	James E. Martine	D.	Plainfield	New York	1850	Farmer.
1913	Frank O. Briggs	R.	Trenton	New Hampshire.	1851	Manufacturer.
	NEW YORK.					
1915	Elihu Root	R.	New York	New York	1845	Lawyer.
1917	J. A. O'Gorman	D.	New York	New York	1860	Lawyer.
	N. CAROLINA.					
1915	Lee S. Overman	D.	Salisbury	N. Carolina	1854	Lawyer.
1913	F. McL. Simmons	D.	New Bern	N. Carolina	1854	Lawyer
	NORTH DAKOTA.					
1915	A. J. Gronna	R.	Lakota	Iowa	1858	Banker.
1917	P. J. McCumber	R.	Wahpeton	Illinois	1858	Lawyer.
	OHIO.					
1915	Theodore E. Burton	R.	Cleveland	Ohio	1851	Public Official.
1917	Atlee Pomerene	D.	Canton	Ohio	1863	Lawyer.
	OKLAHOMA.					
1913	Robert R. Owens	D.	Muskogee	Virginia	1856	Public Official.
1915	Thomas P. Gore	D.	Lawton	Mississippi	1870	Public Official.
	OREGON.					
1915	G. E. Chamberlain	D.	Portland	Mississippi	1854	Lawyer.
1913	Jonathan Bourne, Jr.	R.	Portland	Massachusetts	1855	Mining.
	PENNSYLVANIA.					
1915	Boies Penrose	R.	Philadelphia	Pennsylvania	1860	Public Official.
1917	Geo. T. Oliver	R.	Pittsburgh	Ireland	1848	Journalist.
	RHODE ISLAND.					
1917	Henry F. Lippitt	R.	Providence	Rhode Island	1856	Cotton.
1913	Geo. P. Wetmore	R.	Newport	England	1846	Public Official.
	S. CAROLINA.					
1915	E. D. Smith	D.	Lynchburg	South Carolina.	1866	Planter.
1913	Benj. R. Tillman	D.	Trenton	South Carolina.	1847	Farmer.
	SOUTH DAKOTA.					
1915	Coe I. Crawford	R.	Huron	Iowa	1858	Public Official.
1913	Robert J. Gamble	R.	Yankton	New York	1851	Lawyer.
	TENNESSEE.					
1917	Luke Lea	D.	Nashville	Tennessee	1879	Lawyer.
1913	Robert L. Taylor	D.	Nashville	Tennessee	1850	Lawyer.
	TEXAS.					
1917	C. A. Culberson	D.	Dallas	Alabama	1855	Lawyer.
1913	Joseph W. Bailey	D.	Gainesville	Mississippi	1863	Lawyer.
	UTAH.					
1915	Reed Smoot	R.	Provo	Utah	1862	Banker.
1917	George Sutherland	R.	Salt Lake City	England	1862	Lawyer.
	VERMONT.					
1915	W. P. Dillingham	R.	Montpelier	Vermont	1843	Lawyer.
1917	Carroll S. Page	R.	Hyde Park	Vermont	1843	Banker.
	VIRGINIA.					
....	C. A. Swanson	D.	Chatham	Virginia	1862	Public Official.
1913	Thomas S. Martin †	D.	Charlot'sville	Virginia	1847	Lawyer.
	WASHINGTON.					
1915	Wesley L. Jones	R.	N. Yakima	Illinois	1863	Lawyer.
1917	Miles Poindexter	R.	Spokane	Tennessee	1868	Lawyer.
	WEST VIRGINIA.					
1917	Wm. E. Chilton	D.	Charleston	West Virginia	1858	Lawyer.
1913	C. W. Watson	D.	Fairmont	West Virginia	1864	Public Official.
	WISCONSIN.					
1915	Isaac Stephenson	R.	Marinette	Canada	1829	Lumberman.
1917	Robt. M. LaFollette	R.	Madison	Wisconsin	1855	Editor.
	WYOMING.					
1917	Clarence D. Clark	R.	Evanston	New York	1851	Public Official.
1913	Francis E. Warren ‡	R.	Cheyenne	Massachusetts	1844	Stock Raiser.

D., Democrats, 42; R., Republicans, 49: vacancy, 1. Total, 92.

† Served in the Confederate Army during the Civil War. ‡ Served in the Union Army during the Civil War.

VOCATIONS.—Lawyers, 49; farmers, 4; manufacturers, 2; mining, 1; editors, 2; insurance, 1; merchant, 1; cotton, 1; planter, 1; stock raiser, 1; bankers, 4; literature, 1; journalists, 2; public officials, 16; lumbermen, 2; retired, 2. The salary of a Senator or Representative is $7,500 per annum. Congress each session votes an appropriation of 20 cents per mile for travelling from and to the seat of government.

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

Speaker .....Champ Clark, Dem., of Missouri.
Clerk .....South Trimble, Dem., of Kentucky.

Dis-TRICT.	Representatives.	Politics.	Post-Office Address.	Place of Birth.	Year of Birth.	Present Vocation.
	ALABAMA.					
1	George W. Taylor*†	D.	Demopolis	Alabama	1849	Lawyer.
2	Stanley H. Dent, Jr.*	D.	Montgomery	Alabama	1869	Lawyer.
3	Henry D. Clayton*	D.	Eufaula	Alabama	1857	Public Official.
4	Fred. L. Blackmon	D.	Anniston	Georgia	1873	Public Official.
5	J. Thomas Heflin*	D.	Lafayette	Alabama	1869	Public Official.
6	Richmond P. Hobson*	D.	Greensboro	Alabama	1870	Naval Const'r.
7	John L. Burnett*	D.	Gadsden	Alabama	1854	Lawyer.
8	William Richardson*†	D.	Huntsville	Alabama		Public Official.
9	O. W. Underwood*	D.	Birmingham	Kentucky	1862	Public Official.
	ARKANSAS.					
1	R. B. Macon*	D.	Helena	Arkansas	1859	Lawyer.
2	William A. Oldfield	D.	Batesville	Arkansas	1874	Lawyer.
3	John C. Floyd*	D.	Yellville	Tennessee	1858	Public Official.
4	Ben Cravens*	D.	Fort Smith	Arkansas	1872	Lawyer.
5	H. M. Jacoway	D.	Dardanelle	Arkansas	1870	Lawyer.
6	Joseph T. Robinson*	D.	Lonoke	Arkansas	1872	Lawyer.
7	Wm. Shields Goodwin	D.	Warren	Arkansas	1866	Lawyer.
	CALIFORNIA.					
1	John E. Raker	D.	Alturas	Illinois	1863	Lawyer.
2	Wm. Kent	R.	Kentfield	Illinois	1864	Cattle Dealer.
3	Joseph R. Knowland*	R.	Alameda	California	1873	Banker.
4	Julius Kahn*	R.	San Francisco	Germany	1861	Lawyer.
5	E. A. Hayes*	R.	San José	Wisconsin	1855	Journalist.
6	James C. Needham*	R.	Modesto	Nevada	1864	Public Official.
7	Wm. D. Stephens	R.	Los Angeles	Ohio	1859	Public Official.
8	Sylvester C. Smith*	R.	Bakersfield	Iowa	1858	Editor.
	COLORADO.					
	Edw. T. Taylor*(at large)	D.	Glenwood Sp.	Illinois	1858	Lawyer.
1	Atterson W. Rucker*†	D.	Rucker R'dg.	Kentucky	1847	Lawyer.
2	John A. Martin*	D.	Pueblo	Ohio	1868	Lawyer.
	CONNECTICUT.					
	John Q. Tilson*(at large)	R.	New Haven	Tennessee	1866	Public Official.
1	E. Stevens Henry*	R.	Rockville	Mass	1836	Public Official.
2	Thos. L. Reilly	D.	Meriden	Connecticut	1858	Journalist.
3	Edwin W. Higgins*	R.	Norwich	Connecticut	1874	Lawyer.
4	Ebenezer J. Hill*‡	R.	Norwalk	Connecticut	1845	Banker.
	DELAWARE.					
	Wm. H. Heald*(at large)	R.	Wilmington	Delaware	1864	Lawyer.
	FLORIDA.					
1	S. M. Sparkman*	D.	Tampa	Florida	1849	Lawyer.
2	Frank Clark*	D.	Gainesville	Alabama	1860	Lawyer.
3	Dannitte H. Mays*	D.	Monticello	Florida	1852	Farmer.
	GEORGIA.					
1	Charles G. Edwards*	D.	Savannah	Georgia	1878	Lawyer.
2	S. A. Roddenbery	D.	Thomasville	Georgia	1870	Public Official.
3	Dudley M. Hughes*	D.	Danville	Georgia	1848	Farmer.
4	Wm. Chas. Adamson*	D.	Carrollton	Georgia	1854	Public Official.
5	Wm. Schley Howard	D.	Decatur	Georgia	1875	Lawyer.
6	Charles L. Bartlett*	D.	Macon	Georgia	1853	Lawyer.
7	Gordon Lee*	D.	Chickamauga	Georgia	1859	Farmer.
8	S. J. Tribble	D.	Athens	Georgia	1867	Lawyer.
9	Thomas M. Bell*	D.	Gainesville	Georgia	1861	Farmer.
10	Thomas W. Hardwick*	D.	Sandersville	Georgia	1872	Lawyer.
11	W. G. Brantley*	D.	Brunswick	Georgia	1860	Lawyer.
	IDAHO.					
	Burton L. French(at large)	R.	Moscow	Indiana	1875	Lawyer.
	ILLINOIS.					
1	Martin B. Madden*	R.	Chicago	England	1855	Stone.
2	James R. Mann*	R.	Chicago	Illinois	1856	Lawyer.
3	William W. Wilson*	R.	Chicago	Illinois	1868	Lawyer.
4	James T. McDermott*	D.	Chicago	Michigan	1872	Public Official.
5	Adolph J. Sabath*	D.	Chicago	Bohemia	1866	Lawyer.
6	Edmund J. Stack	D.	Chicago	Illinois	1874	Lawyer.
7	Frank Buchanan	D.	Chicago	Indiana	1862	Public Official.
8	Thomas Gallagher*	D.	Chicago	N. Hampshire	1850	Retired.
9	Lynden Evans	D.	Chicago	Illinois	1858	Lawyer.
10	George E. Foss*	R.	Chicago	Vermont	1863	Lawyer.
11	Ira C. Copley	R.	Aurora	Illinois	1864	Gas.
12	Charles E. Fuller*	R.	Belvidere	Illinois	1849	Lawyer.
13	John C. McKenysie	R.	Elizabeth	Illinois	1860	Public Official.
14	James McKinney*	R.	Aledo	Illinois	1852	Public Official.
15	Geo. W. Prince*	R.	Galesburg	Illinois	1854	Lawyer.
16	Claudius U. Stone	D.	Peoria	Illinois	1879	Lawyer.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES—*Continued.*

Dis-TRICT.	Representatives.	Politics.	Post-Office Address.	Place of Birth.	Year of Birth.	Present Vocation.
	ILLINOIS—*Continued.*					
17	John A. Sterling*	R.	Bloomington	Illinois	1857	Lawyer.
18	Joseph G. Cannon*	R.	Danville	N. Carolina	1836	Public Official.
19	William B. McKinley*	R.	Champaign	Illinois	1856	Banker.
20	Henry T. Rainey*	D.	Carrollton	Illinois	1860	Lawyer.
21	James M. Graham*	D.	Springfield	Ireland	1852	Lawyer.
22	William A. Rodenberg*	R.	E. St. Louis	Illinois	1865	Lawyer.
23	Martin D. Foster*	D.	Olney	Illinois	1861	Medicine.
24	H. R. Fowler	D.	Elizabethtown	Illinois		Lawyer.
25	N. B. Thistlewood‡	R.	Cairo	Delaware	1837	Public Official.
	INDIANA.					
1	John W. Boehne*	D.	Evansville	Indiana	1856	Manufacturer.
2	William A. Cullop*	D.	Vincennes	Indiana	1853	Lawyer.
3	William E. Cox	D.	Jasper	Indiana	1865	Lawyer.
4	Lincoln Dixon*	D.	North Vernon	Indiana	1860	Lawyer.
5	Ralph W. Moss*	D.	Center Point.	Indiana	1862	Farmer.
6	Finly H. Gray	D.	Connorsville	Indiana	1864	Lawyer.
7	C. A. Korbly*	D.	Indianapolis	Indiana	1871	Lawyer.
8	John A. M. Adair*	D.	Portland	Indiana	1863	Public Official.
9	Martin A. Morrison*	D.	Frankfort	Indiana	1862	Lawyer.
10	E. D. Crumpacker*	R.	Valparaiso	Indiana	1852	Lawyer.
11	George W. Rauch	D.	Marion	Indiana	1876	Lawyer.
12	Cyrus Kline*	D.	Angola	Ohio	1856	Lawyer.
13	Henry A. Barnhart*	D.	Rochester	Indiana	1858	Journalist.
	IOWA.					
1	Charles A. Kennedy*	R.	Montrose	Iowa	1869	Nursery.
2	I. S. Pepper	D.	Muscatine	Iowa	1876	Lawyer.
3	Charles E. Pickett	R.	Waterloo	Iowa	1866	Lawyer.
4	Gilbert N. Haugen*	R.	Northwood	Wisconsin	1859	Public Official.
5	James W. Good*	R.	Cedar Rapids.	Iowa	1866	Lawyer.
6	N. E. Kendall*	R.	Albia	Iowa	1868	Lawyer.
7	Solomon F. Prouty	R.	Des Moines	Ohio	1854	Lawyer.
8	Horace M. Towner	R.	Corning	Illinois	1855	Lawyer.
9	Wm. R. Green	R.	Audubon			Public Official.
10	Frank P. Woods*	R.	Estherville	Wisconsin		Public Official.
11	Elbert H. Hubbard*	R.	Sioux City	Indiana	1849	Lawyer.
	KANSAS.					
1	D. R. Anthony, Jr.	R.	Leavenworth	Kansas	1870	Publisher.
2	Jos. A. Taggart	D.				Public Official.
3	P. P. Campbell*	R.	Pittsburg	Nova Scotia	1860	Lawyer.
4	Fred S. Jackson	R.	Eureka	Kansas	1868	Lawyer.
5	Rollin R. Rees	R.	Minneapolis	Ohio	1865	Lawyer.
6	I. D. Young	R.	Beloit	Iowa		Lawyer.
7						
8	Victor Murdock*	R.	Wichita	Kansas	1871	Journalist.
	KENTUCKY.					
1	O. M. James*	D.	Marion	Kentucky	1871	Lawyer.
2	Augustus O. Stanley*	D.	Henderson	Kentucky	1867	Lawyer.
3	Robert Y. Thomas, Jr.*	D.	Central City	Kentucky		Lawyer.
4	Ben. Johnson*	D.	Bardstown	Kentucky	1858	Banker.
5	S. Sherley*	D.	Louisville	Kentucky	1871	Public Official.
6	A. B. Rouse	D.	Burlington	Indiana	1874	Lawyer.
7	James C. Cantrill*	D.	Georgetown	Kentucky	1870	Farmer.
8	Harvey Helm*	D.	Stanford	Kentucky		Lawyer.
9	William J. Fields	D.	Olive Hill	Kentucky	1874	Real Estate.
10	John W. Langley*	R.	Pikeville	Kentucky	1863	Lawyer.
11	Caleb Powers	R.	Barbourville	Kentucky	1869	Lawyer.
	LOUISIANA.					
1	Albert Estopinal†*	D.	Estopinal	Louisiana	1845	Public Official.
2	Henry G. Dupre	D.		Louisiana	1873	Lawyer.
3	Robt. F. Broussard*	D.	New Iberia	Louisiana	1864	Lawyer.
4	John T. Watkins*	D.	Minden	Louisiana	1854	Lawyer.
5	Joseph E. Ransdell*	D.	L. Providence	Louisiana	1858	Planter.
6	Robert C. Wickliffe	D.	St. Francisv'l.	Kentucky	1874	Lawyer.
7	A. P. Pujo*	D.	Lake Charles.	Louisiana	1861	Lawyer.
	MAINE.					
1	Asher C. Hinds	R.	Portland	Maine	1873	Public Official.
2	D. J. McGillicuddy	D.	Lewiston	Maine	1859	Lawyer.
3	Samuel W. Gould	D.	Skowhegan	Maine	1852	Lawyer.
4	Frank E. Guernsey*	R.	Dover	Maine	1866	Banker.
	MARYLAND.					
1	James H. Covington*	D.	Easton	Maryland	1870	Lawyer.
2	Joshua F. C. Talbott*†	D.	Towson	Maryland	1843	Lawyer.
3	George Konig	D.	Baltimore	Maryland	1856	Fertilizer.
4	J. C. Linthicum	D.	Baltimore	Maryland	1867	Lawyer.
5	Thomas Parran	R.	St. Leonard	Maryland	1860	Farmer.
6	David J. Lewis	D.	Cumberland	Penna.	1869	Lawyer.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES—*Continued.*

Dis-trict.	Representatives.	Politics.	Post-Office Address.	Place of Birth.	Year of Birth.	Present Vocation.
	MASSACHUSETTS.					
1	Geo. P. Lawrence*	R.	North Adams.	Mass.	1859	Lawyer.
2	Fred. H. Gillett*	R.	Springfield	Mass.	1851	Lawyer.
3	John A. Thayer	D.	Worcester	Mass.	1857	Lawyer.
4	William Henry Wilder	R.	Gardner	Mass.	1855	Lawyer.
5	Butler Ames*	R.	Lowell	Mass.	1871	Manufacturer.
6	Augustus P. Gardner*	R.	Hamilton	Mass.	1865	Public Official.
7	Ernest W. Roberts*	R.	Chelsea	Mass.	1858	Lawyer.
8	Samuel W. McCall*	R.	Winchester	P'enna.	1851	Lawyer.
9	William F. Murray	D.	Boston	Mass.	1881	Lawyer.
10	James M. Curley	D.	Boston	Mass.	1874	Real Estate.
11	Andrew J. Peters	D.	Jamaica Pl'n.	Mass.	1872	Lawyer.
12	John W. Weeks*	R.	West Newton.	N. Hamp.	1860	Banker.
13	William S. Greene*	R.	Fall River	Illinois	1841	Real Estate.
14	Robert O. Harris	R.	E. Bridgewa'r.	Mass.	1854	Lawyer.
	MICHIGAN.					
1	Frank E. Doremus.	D.	Detroit	Penna.	1865	Lawyer.
2	Wm. W. Wedemeyer	R.	Ann Arbor	Michigan	1873	Lawyer.
3	J. M. C. Smith	R.	Charlotte	Ireland	1853	Public Official.
4	E. L. Hamilton*	R.	Niles	Michigan	1857	Lawyer.
5	Edwin F. Sweet	D.	Grand Rapids.	New York	1847	Lawyer.
6	Samuel W. Smith*	R.	Pontiac	Michigan	1852	Lawyer.
7	Henry McMorran*	R.	Port Huron	Michigan	1844	Manufactu'g.
8	J. W. Fordney*	R.	Saginaw, W. S.	Indiana	1853	Lumber.
9	James C. McLaughlin	R.	Muskegon	Illinois	1858	Lawyer.
10	Geo. A. Loud*	R.	Au Sable	Ohio	1852	Lumberman.
11	Francis H. Dodds*	R.	Mt. Pleasant.	New York	1858	Lawyer.
12	H. Olin Young	R.	Ishpeming	New York	1850	Lawyer.
	MINNESOTA.					
1	Sydney Anderson	R.	Lanesboro	Minnesota	1880	Lawyer.
2	W. S. Hammond*	D.	St. James	Mass.	1863	Lawyer.
3	C. R. Davis*	R.	St. Peter	Illinois	1849	Lawyer.
4	Fred'k C. Stevens*	R.	St. Paul	Mass.	1861	Lawyer.
5	Frank M. Nye*	R.	Minneapolis	Maine	1852	Lawyer.
6	Charles A. Lindbergh*	R.	Little Falls			Public Official.
7	Andrew J. Volstead*	R.	Granite Falls.	Minnesota	1860	Lawyer.
8	Clarence B. Miller*	R.	Duluth	Minnesota	1872	Lawyer.
9	H. Steenerson*	R.	Crookston	Wisconsin	1852	Lawyer.
	MISSISSIPPI.					
1	E. S. Candler, Jr.*	D.	Corinth	Florida	1862	Lawyer.
2	Hubert D. Stephens	D.	New Albany	Mississippi	1875	Public Official.
3	B. G. Humphreys*	D.	Greenville	Mississippi	1865	Lawyer.
4	Thomas U. Sisson*	D.	Winona	Mississippi	1869	Public Official.
5	Samuel A. Witherspoon	D.	Meridian	Mississippi	1855	Lawyer.
6	Byron P. Harrison	D.	Gulfport	Mississippi		Lawyer.
7	William A. Dickson*	D.	Centreville	Mississippi	1861	Planter.
8	J. W. Collier*	D.	Vicksburg	Mississippi	1872	Lawyer.
	MISSOURI.					
1	James T. Lloyd*	D.	Shelbyville	Missouri	1857	Public Official.
2	W. W. Rucker*	D.	Keytesville	Virginia	1855	Lawyer.
3	Joshua W. Alexander*	D.	Gallatin	Ohio	1852	Lawyer.
4	Charles F. Booher*	D.	Savannah	New York	1848	Lawyer.
5	Wm. P. Borland*	D.	Kansas City	Kansas	1867	Lawyer.
6	C. C. Dickinson	D.	Clinton	Virginia	1849	Lawyer.
7	Courtney W. Hamlin*	D.	Springfield	N. Carolina	1858	Public Official.
8	Dorsey W. Shackleford*	D.	Jefferson City.	Missouri	1853	Lawyer.
9	Champ Clark*	D.	Bowl'g Green.	Kentucky	1850	Lecturer.
10	Richard Bartholdt*	R.	St. Louis	Germany	1855	Editor.
11	Theron E. Catlin	R.	St. Louis	Missouri	1878	Lawyer.
12	L. C. Dyer	R.	St. Louis	Missouri	1871	Lawyer.
13	Walter L. Hensley	D.	Farmington	Missouri	1871	Lawyer.
14	Joe J. Russell	D.	Charleston	Missouri	1854	Lawyer.
15	J. A. Daugherty	D.	Webb City	Tennessee	1847	Mining.
16	Thomas L. Rubey	D.	Lebanon	Missouri	1862	Public Official.
	MONTANA.					
	Chas. N. Pray* (at large)	R.	Fort Benton	New York		Lawyer.
	NEBRASKA.					
1	John A. Maguire*	D.	Lincoln	Illinois	1872	Lawyer.
2	C. O. Lobeck	D.	Omaha	Illinois	1852	Public Official.
3	Daniel V. Stephens	D.				Public Official.
4	Chas. H. Sloan	R.	Geneva	Iowa	1863	Lawyer.
5	Geo. W. Norris*	R.	McCook	Ohio	1861	Lawyer.
6	M. P. Kinkaid*	R.	O'Neill	W. Virginia	1856	Lawyer.
	NEVADA.					
	Ed. E. Roberts (at large)	R.		California	1870	Lawyer.
	NEW HAMPSHIRE.					
1	Cyrus A. Sulloway*	R.	Manchester	N. Hamp.	1839	Public Official.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES—*Continued.*

Dis. Tract.	Representatives.	Politics.	Post-Office Address.	Place of Birth.	Year of Birth.	Present Vocation.
	N. Hampshire—*Cont'd.*					
2	F. D. Currier*	R.	Canaan	N. Hamp.	1853	Lawyer.
	New Jersey.					
1	Wm. J. Browning.	R.	Camden	New Jersey	1850	Merchant.
2	John J. Gardner*‡	R.	Atlantic City.	New Jersey	1845	Farmer.
3	Thos. J. Scully	D.	South Amboy.	New Jersey	1868	Towing.
4	Ira W. Wood*	R.	Trenton	Penna.	1856	Lawyer.
5	Wm. E. Tuttle, Jr.	D.	Westfield	New York	1870	Lumber.
6	William Hughes**	D.	Paterson	Ireland	1872	Lawyer.
7	E. W. Townsend	D.	U. Montclair.	Ohio	1855	Author.
8	Walter I. McCoy	D.	South Orange.	New York	1859	Lawyer.
9	Eugene F. Kinkead*	D.	Jersey City	Ireland	1876	Advertising.
10	James A. Hamill*	D.	Jersey City	New Jersey	1877	Lawyer.
	New York.					
1	Martin W. Littleton	D.	P. Washing'n.	Tennessee	1872	Lawyer.
2	George H. Lindsay*	D.	Brooklyn	New York	1836	Real Estate.
3	Jas. P. Maher	D.	Brooklyn	New York	1865	Hatter.
4	Frank E. Wilson	D.	Brooklyn	New York	1857	Physician.
5	Wm. C. Redfield	D.	Brooklyn	New York	1858	Manufacturer.
6	William M. Calder*	R.	Brooklyn	New York	1869	Builder.
7	John J. Fitzgerald*	D.	Brooklyn	New York	1872	Lawyer.
8	Daniel J. Riordan*	D.	N. Y. City	New York	1870	Real Estate.
9	Henry M. Goldfogle*	D.	N. Y. City	New York	1858	Lawyer.
10	William Sulzer*	D.	N. Y. City	New Jersey	1863	Lawyer.
11	Charles V. Fornes*	D.	N. Y. City	New York	1848	Banker.
12	Michael F. Conroy.*	D.	N. Y. City	Penna.	1870	Lawyer.
13	Jefferson M. Levy	D.	N. Y. City	Virginia		Public Official.
14	John J. Kindred	D.	Astoria	Virginia	1864	Physician.
15	Thomas G. Patten	D.	N. Y. City	New York	1861	Steamboat.
16	Francis B. Harrison*	D.	N. Y. City	New York	1873	Lawyer.
17	Henry George, Jr.	D.	N. Y. City	California	1862	Writer.
18	Steven B. Ayres	D.	N. Y. City	Iowa	1861	Real Estate.
19	John E. Andrus*	R.	Yonkers	New York	1841	Manufacturer.
20	Thomas W. Bradley*‡	R.	Walden		1844	Retired.
21	Richard E. Connell	D.	Po'keepsie	New York	1857	Public Official.
22	William H. Draper*	R.	Troy	Mass.	1841	Manufacturer.
23	Henry S. De Forest	R.	Schenectady	New York	1847	Banker.
24	George W. Fairchild*	R.	Oneonta	New York	1854	Manufacturer.
25	Theron Akin	R.	Akin.	New York	1855	Farmer.
26	George R. Malby*	R.	Ogdensburg	New York	1857	Lawyer.
27	C. A. Talcott	D.	Utica	New York	1857	Lawyer.
28	Luther W. Mott	R.	Oswego	New York	1874	Banker.
29	M. E. Driscoll*	R.	Syracuse	New York	1851	Lawyer.
30	John W. Dwight*	R.	Dryden	New York	1859	Banker
31	Sereno E. Payne*	R.	Auburn	New York	1843	Lawyer.
32	Henry G. Danforth	R.	Rochester	New York	1854	Lawyer.
33	Edwin S. Underhill	D.	Bath	New York	1861	Journalist.
34	James S. Simmons*	R.	Niagara Falls.	Maryland	1861	Real Estate.
35	Daniel A. Driscoll*	D.	Buffalo	New York	1875	Undertaker.
36	Chas. B. Smith	D.	Buffalo	New York	1870	Editor.
37	Ed. B. Vreeland*	R.	Salamanca	New York	1857	Banker.
	North Carolina.					
1	John H. Small*	D.	Washington	N. Carolina	1858	Lawyer.
2	Claude Kitchin*	D.	Scotland Neck	N. Carolina	1869	Lawyer.
3	John M. Faison	D.	Faison	N. Carolina	1862	Physician.
4	Edward W. Pou*	D.	Smithfield	Alabama	1863	Lawyer.
5	Chas. M. Stedman †	D.	Greensboro	N. Carolina	1841	Lawyer.
6	H. L. Godwin*	D.	Dunn	N. Carolina	1873	Lawyer.
7	Robert N. Page*	D.	Biscoe	N. Carolina	1859	Public Official.
8	R. L. Daughton	D.	Laurel Springs	N. Carolina	1863	Farming.
9	E. Y. Webb*	D.	Shelby	N. Carolina	1872	Lawyer.
10	J. M. Gudger, Jr.	D.	Asheville	N. Carolina		Lawyer.
	North Dakota.					
1	H. T. Helgesen (at large).	R.	Milton	Iowa	1857	Farmer.
2	Louis B. Hanna	R.	Fargo	Penna.	1861	Banker.
	Ohio.					
1	Nicholas Longworth*	R.	Cincinnati	Ohio	1869	Lawyer.
2	Alfred G. Allen	D.	Cincinnati	Ohio	1867	Lawyer.
3	James M. Cox*	D.	Dayton	Ohio	1870	Journalist.
4	J. Henry Goeke	D.	Wapakoneta	Ohio	1869	Lawyer.
5	Timothy T. Ansberry*	D.	Defiance	Ohio	1871	Lawyer.
6	Matt. R. Denver*	D.	Wilmington	Ohio	1870	Banker.
7	James D. Post	D.	Washington	Ohio	1863	Lawyer.
8	Frank B. Willis	R.	Ada	Ohio	1871	Teacher.
9	Isaac R. Sherwood**‡	D.	Toledo	New York	1835	Public Official.
10	R. M. Switzer	R.	Gallipolis	Ohio	1863	Lawyer.
11	H. C. Claypool	D.	Chillicothe	Ohio	1859	Lawyer.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES—*Continued.*

Dis-trict.	Representatives.	Politics.	Post-Office Address.	Place of Birth.	Year of Birth.	Present Vocation.
	OHIO—*Cont'd.*					
12	Edward L. Taylor, Jr.*	R.	Columbus	Ohio	1869	Lawyer.
13	C. C. Anderson*	D.	Fostoria	Ohio	1877	Public Official.
14	William G. Sharp*	D.	Elyria	Ohio	1859	Manufacturer.
15	Geo. White	D.	Marietta	New York	1872	Crude Oil.
16	William B. Francis	D.	Martin's F'y.	Ohio	.....	Public Official.
17	Wm. A. Ashbrook*	D.	Johnstown	Ohio	1867	Banker.
18	John J. Whitaker	D.	Canton	Nebraska	1860	Contractor.
19	E. R. Bathrick	D.	Akron	Michigan	1863	Public Official.
20	Paul Howland	R.	Cleveland	Ohio	1865	Lawyer.
21	Robt. J. Bulkley	D.	Cleveland	Ohio	1880	Lawyer.
	OKLAHOMA.					
1	Bird S. McGuire*	R.	Pawnee	Illinois	1864	Lawyer.
2	Dick T. Morgan*	R.	Woodward	Indiana	1853	Lawyer.
3	James S. Davenport	D.	Vinita	Alabama	1864	Lawyer.
4	C. D. Carter*	D.	Ardmore	Ind. Territory	1868	Farmer.
5	Scott Ferris*	D.	Lawton	Missouri	1877	Lawyer.
	OREGON.					
1	Willis C. Hawley*	R.	Salem	Oregon	1864	Public Official.
2	A. W. Lafferty	R.	Portland	Missouri	1875	Lawyer.
	PENNSYLVANIA.					
1	H. H. Bingham*‡	R.	Philadelphia	Penna.	1841	Public Official.
2	Wm. S. Reyburn	R.	Philadelphia	Penna.	1882	Lawyer.
3	J. H. Moore*	R.	Philadelphia	New Jersey	1864	Public Official.
4	Reuben O. Moon*	R.	Philadelphia	New Jersey	1847	Lawyer.
5	Michael Donohoe	D.	Philadelphia	Ireland	1864	Manufacturer.
6	George D. McCreary*	D.	Philadelphia	Penna.	1846	Banker.
7	Thomas S. Butler*	R.	West Chester	Penna.	1855	Lawyer.
8	Robt. E. Diefenderfer	D.	Jenkintown	Penna.	1849	Contractor.
9	W. W. Griest*	R.	Lancaster	Penna.	1859	Journalist.
10	John R. Farr	R.	Scranton	Penna.	1857	Real Estate.
11	C. C. Bowman	R.	Pittston	New York	1852	Coal.
12	Robert E. Lee	D.	Pottsville	Penna.	.....	Public Official.
13	John H. Rothermel*	D.	Reading	Penna.	.....	.....
14	W. D. B. Ainey	R.	Montrose	.....	.....	Public Official.
15	William B. Wilson*	D.	Blossburg	Scotland	1862	Farmer.
16	John G. McHenry*	D.	Benton	Penna.	1870	Journalist.
17	Benjamin K. Focht*	R.	Lewisburg	Penna.	1863	Journalist.
18	Marlin E. Olmstead*	R.	Harrisburg	Penna.	.....	Lawyer.
19	Jesse L. Hartman	R.	Hollidaysburg	Penna.	1853	Shipper.
20	Daniel F. Lafean*	R.	York	Penna.	1861	Manufacturer.
21	Charles E. Patton	R.	Curwensville	Penna.	1859	Banker.
22	Curtis H. Gregg	D.	Greensburg	Penna.	1865	Lawyer.
23	Thomas S. Crago	R.	Waynesburg	Penna.	1866	Lawyer.
24	Charles Matthews	R.	New Castle	Penna.	1856	Banker.
25	Arthur L. Bates*	R.	Meadville	Penna.	1859	Lawyer.
26	A. Mitchell Palmer*	D.	Stroudsburg	Penna.	1872	Lawyer.
27	J. N. Laugham*	R.	Indiana	Penna.	1861	Lawyer.
28	Peter M. Speer	R.	Oil City	Penna.	1862	Lawyer.
29	Stephen G. Porter	R.	Pittsburgh	Ohio	1869	Lawyer.
30	John Dalzell*	R.	Pittsburgh	New York	1845	Lawyer.
31	James F. Burke*	R.	Pittsburgh	Penna.	1867	Lawyer.
32	Andrew J. Barchfeld*	R.	Pittsburgh	Penna.	1863	Physician.
	RHODE ISLAND.					
1	George F. O'Shaunessy	D.	Providence	Ireland	1889	Lawyer.
2	George H. Utter	R.	Westerly	New Jersey	1854	Publisher.
	SOUTH CAROLINA.					
1	George S. Legare*	D.	Charleston	S. Carolina	1870	Lawyer.
2	James F. Byrnes	D.	Aiken	S. Carolina	1879	Lawyer.
3	Wyatt Aiken*	D.	Abbeville	S. Carolina	1863	Farmer.
4	Joseph T. Johnson*	D.	Spartanburg	S. Carolina	1858	Public Official.
5	D. E. Finley*	D.	Yorkville	Arkansas	1861	Lawyer.
6	J. Edwin Ellerbe*	D.	Marion	S. Carolina	1867	Farmer.
7	A. F. Lever*	D.	Lexington	S. Carolina	1875	Farmer.
	SOUTH DAKOTA.					
	Chas. H. Burke (at large)*	R.	Pierre	New York	1861	Public Official.
	Eben W. Martin (at large)*	R.	Deadwood	Iowa	1855	Lawyer.
	TENNESSEE.					
1	Samuel R. Sells	R.	Johnson City	Tennessee	1871	Lumber.
2	R. W. Austin*	R.	Knoxville	Alabama	1857	Lawyer.
3	John A. Moon*	D.	Chattanooga	Virginia	1855	Lawyer.
4	Cordell Hull	D.	Carthage	Tennessee	1871	Lawyer.
5	William C. Houston*	D.	Woodbury	Tennessee	1852	Public Official.
6	Joseph W. Byrnes*	D.	Nashville	Tennessee	1869	Lawyer.
7	L. P. Padgett*	D.	Columbia	Tennessee	1855	Lawyer.
8	Thetus W. Sims*	D.	Linden	Tennessee	1852	Lawyer.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES—*Continued.*

Dis-TRICT.	Representatives.	Politics.	Post-Office Address.	Place of Birth.	Year of Birth.	Present Vocation.
	TENNESSEE—*Cont'd.*					
9	Finis J. Garrett*	D.	Dresden	Tennessee	1875	Lawyer.
10	Kenneth D. McKellar	D.	Memphis			Public Official.
	TEXAS.					
1	Morris Sheppard*	D.	Texarkana	Texas	1875	Lawyer.
2	Martin Dies	D.	Beaumont	Louisiana	1870	Lawyer.
3	James Young	D.	Kaufman	Texas	1866	Lawyer.
4	Choice B. Randell*	D.	Sherman	Georgia	1857	Lawyer.
5	Jack Beall*	D.	Waxahachie	Texas	1866	Lawyer.
6	Rufus Hardy*	D.	Corsicana	Mississippi	1855	Real Estate.
7	Alexander W. Gregg	D.	Palestine	Texas		Lawyer.
8	John M. Moore*	D.	Richmond	Texas	1862	Stock Raiser.
9	Geo. F. Burgess*	D.	Gonzales	Texas	1861	Lawyer.
10	Albert S. Burleson*	D.	Austin	Texas	1863	Farmer.
11	Robert L. Henry*	D.	Waco	Texas	1864	Lawyer.
12	Osion Callaway	D.	Comanche	Texas	1872	Lawyer.
13	John H. Stephens*	D.	Vernon	Texas		Lawyer.
14	James L. Slayden*	D.	San Antonio	Kentucky	1853	Mining.
15	John N. Garner*	D.	Uvalde	Texas	1869	Lawyer.
16	William R. Smith*	D.	Colorado	Texas	1863	Public Official.
	UTAH.					
	Jos. Howell* (at large)	R.	Logan	Utah	1857	Merchant.
	VERMONT.					
1	D. J. Foster*	R.	Burlington	Vermont	1857	Lawyer.
2	Frank Plumly*	R.	Northfield	Vermont	1844	Lawyer.
	VIRGINIA.					
1	William A. Jones*†	D.	Warsaw	Virginia	1849	Lawyer.
2	E. E. Holland	D.	Suffolk	Virginia	1861	Lawyer.
3	John Lamb*†	D.	Richmond	Virginia	1840	Public Official.
4	R. Turnbull	D.	Lawrenceville	Virginia	1850	Public Official.
5	Edward W. Saunders*	D.	Rocky Mount	Virginia	1860	Lawyer.
6	Carter Glass*	D.	Lynchburg	Virginia	1858	Publisher.
7	James Hay*	D.	Madison	Virginia	1856	Lawyer.
8	Charles C. Carlin*	D.	Alexandria	Virginia	1866	Lawyer.
9	Campbell Slemp*	R.	Big Stone Gap	Virginia	1870	Real Estate.
10	Henry D. Flood*	D.	Appomattox	Virginia	1865	Lawyer.
	WASHINGTON.					
1	William E. Humphrey*	R.	Seattle	Iowa	1867	Lawyer.
2	Stanton Warburton	R.	Tacoma	Penna.	1865	Lawyer.
3	William L. LaFollette	R.	Pullman	Indiana	1860	Stock Raising.
	WEST VIRGINIA.					
1	John W. Davis	D.	Clarksburg	W. Virginia	1873	Lawyer.
2	William G. Brown, Jr.	D.	Kingwood	Virginia	1856	Lawyer.
3	Adam B. Littlepage	D.	Charleston	W. Virginia	1859	Lawyer.
4	John M. Hamilton	D.	Grantsville	W. Virginia	1855	Lawyer.
5	James A. Hughes*	R.	Huntington	Ontario	1861	Real Estate.
	WISCONSIN.					
1	Henry A. Cooper*	R.	Racine	Wisconsin	1850	Lawyer.
2	John M. Nelson*	R.	Madison	Wisconsin	1870	Lawyer.
3	Arthur W. Kopp*	R.	Platteville	Wisconsin	1875	Lawyer.
4	William J. Cary*	R.	Milwaukee	Wisconsin	1865	Public Official.
5	Victor L. Berger	S.	Milwaukee	Aus.-Hungary	1860	Writer.
6	M. E. Burke	D.	Beaver Dam	Wisconsin	1863	Lawyer.
7	John J. Esch*	R.	La Crosse	Wisconsin	1861	Lawyer.
8	James H. Davidson*	R.	Oshkosh	New York	1858	Lawyer.
9	Thos. F. Konop	D.	Kewaunee	Wisconsin	1879	Lawyer.
10	E. A. Morse*	R.	Antigo	Wisconsin	1870	Planter.
11	Irvine L. Lenroot*	R.	Superior	Wisconsin	1869	Lawyer.
	WYOMING.					
	F. W. Mondell* (at large)	R.	Newcastle	Missouri	1860	Stock Raiser.

DELEGATES FROM TERRITORIES.

	ALASKA.					
	James Wickersham*	R.	Fairbanks	Illinois	1857	Lawyer.
	ARIZONA.					
	Ralph H. Cameron*	R.	Flagstaff	Maine	1863	Public Official.
	HAWAII.					
	Jonah K. Kalanianaole*	R.	Honolulu	Hawaii	1871	Capitalist.
	NEW MEXICO.					
	William H. Andrews*	R.	Albuquerque	Penna.	1842	Public Official
	PHILIPPINES.					
	Benito Legarda	R.	Manila	Manila	1853	Public Official.
	Manuel L. Quezon	N.	Tayabas	Manila	1878	Lawyer.
	PORTO RICO.					
	Luis Munoz Riviera	U.	San Juan	Porto Rico	1859	Editor.

D., Democrats, 227. R., Republicans, 162. S., Socialist, 1. Vacancy, 1. Total, 391.
* Served in the Sixty-first House. ** Served in a previous House. † Served in the Confederate army during the Civil War. ‡ Served in the Union army during the Civil War.

NUMBER OF FEDERAL OFFICES, CLASSIFIED.

(Prepared in the office of the Civil Service Commission for the Bureau of Statistics of the Dept. of Commerce and Labor.)

Subdivision of the Service.	Competitive Positions.	Excepted and Non-competitive.	Unclassified.	Total Positions.		
				Presidential.	All Other.	Total.
(In Washington, D. C.)						
White House	.....	41	2	.....	43	43
State Department	173	53	4	4	230	234
Treasury Department	7,015	32	520	33	7,567	7,600
War Department	2,137	24	84	2	2,245	2,247
Navy Department	1,033	5	1	2	1,039	1,041
Post-Office Department	1,537	23	55	6	1,615	1,621
Department of the Interior	4,344	112	240	20	4,696	4,716
Government Hospital for the Insane	698	4	137	.....	839	839
Miscellaneous	26	.....	152	26	178	204
Department of Justice	206	226	33	749	465	1,214
Department of Agriculture	2,665	203	208	3	3,076	3,079
Department of Com. and Labor	1,732	59	2,624	16	4,415	4,431
Interstate Commerce Commission	518	75	15	7	608	615
Civil Service Commission	156	.....	2	5	158	163
Smithsonian Institution and Bureaus	395	2	219	.....	616	616
State, War, and Navy Department Building	127	1	104	.....	232	232
Isthmian Canal Commission	128	15	9	.....	152	152
Government Printing Office	3,626	5	378	1	4,009	4,010
Total	26,516	880	4,787	874	32,183	33,057
(Outside Washington, D. C.)						
Treasury Department:						
Custodian and Janitor Service and office of Supervising Architect (at large)	1,743	46	1,852	.....	3,641	3,641
Mints and Assay Offices	795	38	135	24	968	992
Subtreasury Service	380	.....	.....	9	380	389
Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service	1,488	1,406	140	.....	3,034	3,034
Life-Saving Service	2,278	1	2	.....	2,281	2,281
Customs Service	6,467	234	962	220	7,663	7,883
Internal-Revenue Service	3,326	302	6	66	3,634	3,700
Miscellaneous	157	245	6	46	408	454
War Department:						
Quartermaster's Department (at large)	4,070	1,169	2,808	.....	8,047	8,047
Ordnance Department (at large)	3,199	86	1,435	.....	4,720	4,720
Engineer Department (at large)	6,319	152	6,087	.....	12,558	12,558
Miscellaneous	969	613	548	.....	2,130	2,130
Navy Department:						
Exclusive of trade and labor positions	2,575	1	1	.....	2,577	2,577
Trade and labor positions	.....	.....	25,000	.....	25,000	25,000
Post-Office Department	415	.....	.....	.....	415	415
Post-Office Service, except Fourth-Class Postmasters	70,037	2,876	16,910	7,622	89,823	97,445
Fourth-Class Postmasters	15,193	36,765	.....	.....	51,958	51,958
Rural Free Delivery Service	40,486	1	.....	.....	40,487	40,487
Railway Mail Service	16,956	116	7	.....	17,079	17,079
Department of the Interior:						
Land Service	929	19	.....	225	948	1,173
Pension Agency Service	408	4,600	13	18	5,081	5,099
Indian Service	2,518	3,152	525	29	6,195	6,224
Reclamation Service	1,314	.....	5	.....	1,319	1,319
Miscellaneous	179	3	2	26	184	210
Department of Justice	581	1,247	6	348	1,834	2,182
Department of Agriculture	6,334	2,591	331	.....	9,256	9,256
Department of Com. and Labor:						
Lighthouse Service	3,571	2,330	1,193	.....	7,094	7,094
Immigration Service	1,245	246	146	6	1,637	1,643
Steamboat Inspection Service	291	6	.....	10	297	307
Miscellaneous	436	10	1,985	2	2,431	2,433
Civil Service Commission	33	.....	.....	.....	33	33
Isthmian Canal Service	1,070	7	.....	.....	1,077	1,077
Total	195,762	58,322	60,105	8,651	314,189	322,840
Grand total of table	222,278	59,202	64,892	9,525	346,372	355,897
Isthmian Canal Commission, unclassified and excepted working force, June 30, 1910	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	28,191
Grand total	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	384,088

FEDERAL HALL.

Federal Hall. The Continental Congress, when sitting in New York, had been accommodated in the old City Hall, on the northeast corner of Wall and Nassau streets. This building had fallen into decay when the first national Congress was about to meet there. Desirous of permanently retaining the seat of the national government at New York, and to provide the national legislature with suitable accommodations, several wealthy citizens advanced to the city treasury (then empty) $32,500, with which the old building was remodelled and extensively repaired.

Banks, National; Federal Reserve Banks. See BANKS, FEDERAL RESERVE.

Federal Trade Commission. See TRADE COMMISSION, FEDERAL.

FEDERAL UNION, THE

Federal Union, THE. JOHN FISKE (*q. v.*), the eminent historian, contributes the following essay, originally delivered as a lecture in London, England:

The great history of Thucydides, which after twenty-three centuries still ranks (in spite of Mr. Cobden) among our chief text-books of political wisdom, has often seemed to me one of the most mournful books in the world. At no other spot on the earth's surface, and at no other time in the career of mankind, has the human intellect flowered with such luxuriance as at Athens during the eighty-five years which intervened between the victory of Marathon and the defeat of Aegospotamos. In no other like interval of time, and in no other community of like dimensions, has so much work been accomplished of which we can say with truth that it is κτῆμα ἐς ἀεί —an eternal possession. It is impossible to conceive of a day so distant, or an era of culture so exalted, that the lessons taught by Athens shall cease to be of value, or that the writings of her great thinkers shall cease to be read with fresh profit and delight. We understand these things far better to-day than did those monsters of erudition in the sixteenth century who studied the classics for philological purposes mainly. Indeed, the older the world grows, the more varied our experience of practical politics, the more comprehensive our survey of universal history, the stronger our grasp upon the comparative method of inquiry, the more brilliant is the light thrown upon that brief day of Athenian greatness, and the more wonderful and admirable does it all seem. To see this glorious community overthrown, shorn of half its virtue (to use the Homeric phrase), and thrust down into an inferior position in the world, is a mournful spectacle indeed. And the book which sets before us, so impartially yet so eloquently, the innumerable petty misunderstandings and contemptible jealousies which brought about this direful result, is one of the most mournful of books.

We may console ourselves, however, for the premature overthrow of the power of Athens, by the reflection that that power rested upon political conditions which could not in any case have been permanent or even long-enduring. The entire political system of ancient Greece, based as it was upon the idea of the sovereign independence of each single city, was one which could not fail sooner or later to exhaust itself through chronic anarchy. The only remedy lay either in some kind of permanent federation, combined with rep-

resentative government; or else in what we might call "incorporation and assimilation," after the Roman fashion. But the incorporation of one town with another, though effected with brilliant results in the early history of Attica, involved such a disturbance of all the associations which in the Greek mind clustered about the conception of a city that it was quite impracticable on any large or general scale. Schemes of federal union were put into operation, though too late to be of avail against the assaults of Macedonia and Rome. But as for the principle of representation, that seems to have been an invention of the Teutonic mind; no statesman of antiquity, either in Greece or at Rome, seems to have conceived the idea of a city sending delegates armed with plenary powers to represent its interests in a general legislative assembly. To the Greek statesmen, no doubt, this too would have seemed derogatory to the dignity of the sovereign city.

This feeling with which the ancient Greek statesmen, and to some extent the Romans also, regarded the city, has become almost incomprehensible to the modern mind, so far removed are we from the political cirmcumstances which made such a feeling possible. Teutonic civilization, indeed, has never passed through a stage in which the foremost position has been held by civic communities. Teutonic civilization passed directly from the stage of tribal into that of national organization, before any Teutonic city had acquired sufficient importance to have claimed autonomy for itself; and at the time when Teutonic nationalities were forming, moreover, all the cities in Europe had so long been accustomed to recognize a master outside of them in the person of the Roman emperor that the very tradition of civic autonomy, as it existed in ancient Greece, had become extinct. This difference between the political basis of Teutonic and of Græco-Roman civilization is one of which it would be difficult to exaggerate the importance; and when thoroughly understood it goes further, perhaps, than anything else towards accounting for the successive failures of the Greek and Roman political systems, and towards inspiring us with confidence in the future stability of the political system which has been wrought out by the genius of the English race.

We have seen how the most primitive form of political association known to have existed is that of the *clan*, or group of families held together by ties of descent from a common ancestor. We saw how the change from a nomadic to a stationary mode of life, attendant upon the adoption of agricultural pursuits, converted the clan into a *mark* or village-community, something like those which exist to-day in Russia. The political progress of primitive society seems to have consisted largely in the coalescence of these small groups into larger groups. The first series of compound groups resulting from the coalescence of adjacent marks is that which was known in nearly all Teutonic lands as the *hundred*, in Athens as the *φρατρία* or *brotherhood*, in Rome as the *curia*. Yet alongside of the Roman group called the *curia* there is a group whose name, the *century*, exactly translates the name of the Teutonic group; and, as Mr. Freeman says, it is difficult to believe that the Roman *century* did not at the outset in some way correspond to the Teutonic *hundred* as a stage in political organization. But both these terms, as we know them in history, are survivals from some prehistoric state of things; and whether they were originally applied to a hundred of houses, or of families, or of warriors, we do not know.* M. Geffroy, in his interesting essay on the Germania of Tacitus, suggests that the term *canton* may have a similar origin.** The outlines of these primitive groups are, however, more obscure than those of the more primitive mark, because in most cases they have been either crossed and effaced or at any rate diminished in importance by the more highly compounded groups which came next in order of formation. Next above the *hundred*, in order of composition, comes the group known in ancient Italy as the *pagus*, in Attica perhaps as the *deme*, in Germany and at first in England as the *gau* or *ga*, at a later date in England as the *shire*. Whatever its name, this group answers to the *tribe*

* Freeman, *Comparative Politics*, 118.
** Geffroy, *Rome et les Barbares*, 209.

regarded as settled upon a certain determinate territory. Just as in the earlier nomadic life the aggregation of clans makes ultimately the tribe, so in the more advanced agricultural life of our Aryan ancestors the aggregation of marks or village-communities makes ultimately the *gau* or *shire*. Properly speaking, the name *shire* is descriptive of division and not of aggregation; but this term came into use in England after the historic order of formation had been forgotten, and when the *shire* was looked upon as a *piece* of some larger whole, such as the kingdom of Mercia or Wessex. Historically, however, the *shire* was not made, like the *departments* of modern France, by the division of the kingdom for administrative purposes, but the kingdom was made by the union of shires that were previously autonomous. In the primitive process of aggregation, the *shire* or *gau*, governed by its *witenagemote* or "meeting of wise men," and by its chief magistrate who was called *ealdorman* in time of peace and *heretoga*, "army-leader," *dux*, or *duke*, in time of war,—the *shire*, I say, in this form, is the largest and most complex political body we find previous to the formation of kingdoms and nations. But in saying this, we have already passed beyond the point at which we can include in the same general formula the process of political development in Teutonic countries on the one hand and in Greece and Rome on the other. Up as far as the formation of the tribe, territorially regarded, the parallelism is preserved; but at this point there begins an all-important divergence. In the looser and more diffused society of the rural Teutons, the tribe is spread over a shire, and the aggregation of shires makes a kingdom, embracing cities, towns, and rural districts held together by similar bonds of relationship to the central governing power. But in the society of the old Greeks and Italians, the aggregation of tribes, crowded together on fortified hill-tops, makes the *Ancient City*—a very different thing, indeed, from the modern city of later Roman or Teutonic foundation. Let us consider, for a moment, the difference.

Sir Henry Maine tells us that in Hindustan nearly all the great towns and cities have arisen either from the simple expansion or from the expansion and coalescence of primitive village-communities; and such as have not arisen in this way, including some of the greatest of Indian cities, have grown up about the intrenched camps of the Mogul emperors.* The case has been just the same in modern Europe. Some famous cities of England and Germany—such as Chester and Lincoln, Strasburg and Maintz—grew up about the camps of the Roman legions. But in general the Teutonic city has been formed by the expansion and coalescence of thickly peopled townships and hundreds. In the United States nearly all cities have come from the growth and expansion of villages, with such occasional cases of coalescence as that of Boston with Roxbury and Charlestown. Now and then a city has been laid out as a city *ab initio*, with full consciousness of its purpose, as a man would build a house; and this was the case not merely with Martin Chuzzlewit's "Eden," but with the city of Washington, the seat of our federal government. But, to go back to the early age of England—the country which best exhibits the normal development of Teutonic institutions—the point which I wish especially to emphasize is this: *in no case does the city appear as equivalent to the dwelling-place of a tribe or of a confederation of tribes.* In no case does citizenship, or burghership, appear to rest upon the basis of a real or assumed community of descent from a single real or mythical progenitor. In the primitive mark, as we have seen, the bond which kept the community together and constituted it a political unit was the bond of blood-relationship, real or assumed; but this was not the case with the city or borough. The city did not correspond with the tribe, as the mark corresponded with the clan. The aggregation of clans into tribes corresponded with the aggregation of marks, not into *cities* but into *shires*. The multitude of compound political units, by the further compounding of which a nation was to be formed, did not consist of cities but of shires. The city was simply a point in the shire distinguished by greater density of population. The relations sustained by the thinly peopled rural townships and

* Maine, *Village Communities*, 118.

hundreds to the general government of the shire were co-ordinate with the relations sustained to the same government by those thickly peopled townships and hundreds which upon their coalescence were known as cities or boroughs. Of course I am speaking now in a broad and general way, and without reference to such special privileges or immunities as cities and boroughs frequently obtained by royal charter in feudal times. Such special privileges—as for instance the exemption of boroughs from the ordinary sessions of the county court, under Henry I.*—were in their nature grants from an external source, and were in nowise inherent in the position or mode of origin of the Teutonic city. And they were, moreover, posterior in date to that embryonic period of national growth of which I am now speaking. They do not affect in any way the correctness of my general statement, which is sufficiently illustrated by the fact that the oldest shire-motes, or county assemblies, were attended by representatives from all the townships and hundreds in the shire, whether such townships and hundreds formed parts of boroughs or not.

Very different from this was the embryonic growth of political society in ancient Greece and Italy. There the aggregation of clans into tribes and confederations of tribes resulted directly, as we have seen, in the city. There burghership, with its political and social rights and duties, had its theoretical basis in descent from a common ancestor, or from a small group of closely related common ancestors. The group of fellow-citizens was associated through its related groups of ancestral household-deities, and through religious rites performed in common to which it would have been sacrilege to have admitted a stranger. Thus the ancient city was a religious as well as a political body, and in either character it was complete in itself and it was sovereign. Thus in ancient Greece and Italy the primitive clan assembly or township-meeting did not grow by aggregation into the assembly of the shire, but it developed into the *comitia* or *ecclesia* of the city. The chief magistrate was not the *ealdorman* of early English history, but the *rex* or *basileus* who combined in himself the functions of king, general, and priest. Thus, too, there was a severance, politically, between city and country such as the Teutonic world has never known. The rural districts surrounding a city might be subject to it, but could neither share its franchise nor claim a co-ordinate franchise with it. Athens, indeed, at an early period, went so far as to incorporate with itself Eleusis and Marathon and the other rural towns of Attica. In this one respect Athens transgressed the bounds of ancient civic organization, and no doubt it gained greatly in power thereby. But generally in the Hellenic world the rural population in the neighborhood of a great city were mere *περίοικοι*, or "dwellers in the vicinity"; the inhabitants of the city who had moved thither from some other city, both they and their descendants, were mere *μέτοικοι*, or "dwellers in the place"; and neither the one class nor the other could acquire the rights and privileges of citizenship. A revolution, indeed, went on at Athens, from the time of Solon to the time of Kleisthenes, which essentially modified the old tribal divisions and admitted to the franchise all such families resident from time immemorial as did not belong to the tribes of eupadrids by whom the city was founded. But this change once accomplished, the civic exclusiveness of Athens remained very much what it was before. The popular assembly was enlarged, and public harmony was secured; but Athenian burghership still remained a privilege which could not be acquired by the native of any other city. Similar revolutions, with a similarly limited purpose and result, occurred at Sparta, Elis, and other Greek cities. At Rome, by a like revolution, the plebeians of the Capitoline and Aventine acquired parallel rights of citizenship with the patricians of the original city on the Palatine; but this revolution, as we shall presently see, had different results, leading ultimately to the overthrow of the city system throughout the ancient world.

The deep-seated difference between the Teutonic political system based on the shire and the Græco-Roman system based on the city is now, I think, sufficiently apparent. Now from this fundamental difference

* Stubbs, *Constitutional History*, I., 625.

have come two consequences of enormous importance—consequences of which it is hardly too much to say that, taken together, they furnish the key to the whole history of European civilization as regarded purely from a political point of view.

The first of these consequences had no doubt a very humble origin in the mere difference between the shire and the city in territorial extent and in density of population. When people live near together it is easy for them to attend a town-meeting, and the assembly by which public business is transacted is likely to remain a *primary assembly*, in the true sense of the term. But when people are dispersed over a wide tract of country, the primary assembly inevitably shrinks up into an assembly of such persons as can best afford the time and trouble of attending it, or who have the strongest interest in going, or are most likely to be listened to after they get there. Distance and difficulty, and in early times danger too, keep many people away. And though a shire is not a wide tract of country for most purposes, and according to modern ideas, it was nevertheless quite wide enough in former times to bring about the result I have mentioned. In the times before the Norman conquest, if not before the completed union of England under Edgar, the shire-mote or county assembly, though in theory still a folk-mote or primary assembly, had shrunk into what was virtually a witenagemote or assembly of the most important persons in the county. But the several townships, in order to keep their fair share of control over county affairs, and not wishing to leave the matter to chance, sent to the meetings each its *representatives* in the person of the town-reeve and four "discreet men." I believe it has not been determined at what precise time this step was taken, but it no doubt long antedates the Norman conquest. It is mentioned by Professor Stubbs as being already, in the reign of Henry III., a custom of immemorial antiquity.* It was one of the greatest steps ever taken in the political history of mankind. In these four discreet men we have the forerunners of the two burghers from each town who were summoned by Earl Simon to the famous Parliament of 1265, as well as of the two knights from each shire whom the King had summoned eleven years before. In these four discreet men sent to speak for their township in the old county assembly, we have the germ of institutions that have ripened into the House of Commons and into the legislatures of mod ern kingdoms and republics. In the system of representation thus inaugurated lay the future possibility of such gigantic political aggregates as the United States of America.

In the ancient city, on the other hand, the extreme compactness of the political structure made representation unnecessary and prevented it from being thought ot in circumstances where it might have proved of immense value. In an aristocratic Greek city, like Sparta, all the members of the ruling class met together and voted in the assembly; in a democratic city, like Athens, all the free citizens met and voted; in each case the assembly was primary and not representative. The only exception, in all Greek antiquity, is one which emphatically proves the rule. The Amphictyonic Council, an institution of prehistoric origin, concerned mainly with religious affairs pertaining to the worship of the Delphic Apollo, furnished a precedent for a representative, and indeed for a federal, assembly. Delegates from various Greek tribes and cities attended it. The fact that with such a suggestive precedent before their eyes the Greeks never once hit upon the device of representation, even in their attempts at framing federal unions, shows how thoroughly their whole political training had operated to exclude such a conception from their minds.

The second great consequence of the Græco-Roman city system was linked in many ways with this absence of the representative principle. In Greece the formation of political aggregates higher and more extensive than the city was, until a late date, rendered impossible. The good and bad sides of this peculiar phase of civilization have been often enough commented on by historians. On the one hand the democratic assembly of such an imperial city as Athens furnished a school of political training superior to

* Stubbs, *Select Charters*, 401.

anything else that the world has ever seen. It was something like what the New England town-meeting would be if it were continually required to adjust complicated questions of international polity, if it were carried on in the very centre or point of confluence of all contemporary streams of culture, and if it were in the habit every few days of listening to statesmen and orators like Hamilton or Webster, jurists like Marshall, generals like Sherman, poets like Lowell, historians like Parkman. Nothing in all history has approached the high-wrought intensity and brilliancy of the political life of Athens.

On the other hand, the smallness of the independent city, as a political aggregate, made it of little or no use in diminishing the liability to perpetual warfare which is the curse of all primitive communities. In a group of independent cities, such as made up the Hellenic world, the tendency to warfare is almost as strong, and the occasions for warfare are almost as frequent, as in a congeries of mutually hostile tribes of barbarians. There is something almost lurid in the sharpness of contrast with which the wonderful height of humanity attained by Hellas is set off against the fierce barbarism which characterized the relations of its cities to one another. It may be laid down as a general rule that in an early state of society, where the political aggregations are small, warfare is universal and cruel. From the intensity of the jealousies and rivalries between adjacent self-governing groups of men, nothing short of chronic warfare can result, until some principle of union is evolved by which disputes can be settled in accordance with general principles admitted by all. Among peoples that have never risen above the tribal stage of aggregation, such as the American Indians, war is the normal condition of things, and there is nothing fit to be called *peace*— there are only truces of brief and uncertain duration. Were it not for this there would be somewhat less to be said in favor of great states and kingdoms. As modern life grows more and more complicated and interdependent, the great state subserves innumerable useful purposes; but in the history of civilization its first service, both in order of time and in order of importance, consists in the diminution of the quantity of warfare and in the narrowing of its sphere. For within the territorial limits of any great and permanent state the tendency is for warfare to become the exception and peace the rule. In this direction the political careers of the Greek cities assisted the progress of civilization but little.

Under the conditions of Græco-Roman civic life there were but two practicable methods of forming a great state and diminishing the quantity of warfare. The one method was *conquest with incorporation*, the other method was *federation*. Either one city might conquer all the others and endow their citizens with its own franchise, or all the cities might give up part of their sovereignty to a federal body which should have power to keep the peace, and should represent the civilized world of the time in its relations with outlying barbaric peoples. Of these two methods, obviously the latter is much the more effective, but it presupposes for its successful adoption a higher general state of civilization than the former. Neither method was adopted by the Greeks in their day of greatness. The Spartan method of extending its power was conquest without incorporation: when Sparta conquered another Greek city, she sent a *harmost* to govern it like a tyrant; in other words she virtually enslaved the subject city. The efforts of Athens tended more in the direction of a peaceful federalism. In the great Delian confederacy which developed into the maritime empire of Athens, the Aegean cities were treated as allies rather than subjects. As regards their local affairs they were in no way interfered with, and could they have been represented in some kind of a federal council at Athens, the course of Grecian history might have been wonderfully altered. As it was, they were all deprived of one essential element of sovereignty, the power of controlling their own military forces. Some of them, as Chios and Mitylene, furnished troops at the demand of Athens; others maintained no troops, but paid a fixed tribute to Athens in return for her protection. In either case they felt shorn of part of their dignity, though otherwise they had nothing to complain of; and during the Peloponnesian war Athens had to reckon with their tendency to revolt as well as with

her Dorian enemies. Such a confederation was naturally doomed to speedy overthrow.

In the century following the death of Alexander, in the closing age of Hellenic independence, the federal idea appears in a much more advanced stage of elaboration, though in a part of Greece which had been held of little account in the great days of Athens and Sparta. Between the Achaian federation, framed in 274 B.C., and the United States of America, there are some interesting points of resemblance which have been elaborately discussed by Mr. Freeman, in his *History of Federal Government*. About the same time the Aetolian League came into prominence in the north. Both these leagues were instances of true federal government, and were not mere confederations; that is, the central government acted directly upon all the citizens and not merely upon the local governments. Each of these leagues had for its chief executive officer a general elected for one year, with powers similar to those of an American President. In each the supreme assembly was a primary assembly at which every citizen from every city of the league had a right to be present, to speak, and to vote; but as a natural consequence these assemblies shrank into comparatively aristocratic bodies. In Aetolia, which was a group of mountain cantons similar to Switzerland, the federal union was more complete than in Achaia, which was a group of cities. In Achaia cases occurred in which a single city was allowed to deal separately with foreign powers. Here, as in earlier Greek history, the instinct of autonomy was too powerful to admit of complete federation. Yet the career of the Achaian League was not an inglorious one. For nearly a century and a half it gave the Peloponnesos a larger measure of orderly government than the country had ever known before, without infringing upon local liberties. It defied successfully the threats and assaults of Macedonia, and yielded at last only to the all-conquering might of Rome.

Thus in so far as Greece contributed anything towards the formation of great and pacific political aggregates, she did it through attempts at *federation*. But in so low a state of political development as that which prevailed throughout the Mediterranean world in pre-Christian times, the more barbarous method of *conquest with incorporation* was more likely to be successful on a great scale. This was well illustrated in the history of Rome—a civic community of the same generic type with Sparta and Athens, but presenting specific differences of the highest importance. The beginnings of Rome, unfortunately, are prehistoric. I have often thought that if some beneficent fairy could grant us the power of somewhere raising the veil of oblivion which enshrouds the earliest ages of Aryan dominion in Europe, there is no place from which the historian should be more glad to see it lifted than from Rome in the centuries which saw the formation of the city, and which preceded the expulsion of the kings. Even the legends, which were uncritically accepted from the days of Livy to those of our grandfathers, are provokingly silent upon the very points as to which we would fain get at least a hint. This much is plain, however, that in the embryonic stage of the Roman commonwealth some obscure processes of fusion or commingling went on. The tribal population of Rome was more heterogeneous than that of the great cities of Greece, and its earliest municipal religion seems to have been an assemblage of various tribal religions that had points of contact with other tribal religions throughout large portions of the Græco-Italic world. As M. de Coulanges observes,* Rome was almost the only city of antiquity which was not kept apart from other cities by its religion. There was hardly a people in Greece or Italy which it was restrained from admitting to participation in its municipal rites.

However this may have been, it is certain that Rome early succeeded in freeing itself from that insuperable prejudice which elsewhere prevented the ancient city from admitting aliens to a share in its franchise. And in this victory over primeval political ideas lay the whole secret of Rome's mighty career. The victory was not indeed completed until after the terrible social war of B.C. 90, but it was begun at least four centuries earlier with the admission of the plebeians. At the

* *La Cité Antique*, 441.

consummation of the conquest of Italy in B.C. 270 Roman burghership already extended, in varying degrees of completeness, through the greater part of Etruria and Campania, from the coast to the mountains; while all the rest of Italy was admitted to privileges for which ancient history had elsewhere furnished no precedent. Hence the invasion of Hannibal half a century later, even with its stupendous victories of Thrasymene and Cannæ, effected nothing towards detaching the Italian subjects from their allegiance to Rome; and herein we have a most instructive contrast to the conduct of the communities subject to Athens at several critical moments of the Peloponnesian War. With this consolidation of Italy, thus triumphantly demonstrated, the whole problem of the conquering career of Rome was solved. All that came afterwards was simply a corollary from this. The concentration of all the fighting power of the peninsula into the hands of the ruling city formed a stronger political aggregate than anything the world had as yet seen. It was not only proof against the efforts of the greatest military genius of antiquity, but whenever it was brought into conflict with the looser organizations of Greece, Africa, and Asia, or with the semi-barbarous tribes of Spain and Gaul, the result of the struggle was virtually predetermined. The universal dominion of Rome was inevitable, so soon as the political union of Italy had been accomplished. Among the Romans themselves there were those who thoroughly understood this point, as we may see from the interesting speech of the Emperor Claudius in favor of admitting Gauls to the senate.

The benefits conferred upon the world by the universal dominion of Rome were of quite inestimable value. First of these benefits, and (as it were) the material basis of the others, was the prolonged peace that was enforced throughout large portions of the world where chronic warfare had hitherto prevailed. The *pax romana* has perhaps been sometimes depicted in exaggerated colors; but as compared with all that had preceded, and with all that followed, down to the beginning of the nineteenth century, it deserved the encomiums it has received. The second benefit was the mingling and mutual destruction of the primitive tribal and municipal religions, thus clearing the way for Christianity—a step which, regarded from a purely political point of view, was of immense importance for the further consolidation of society in Europe. The third benefit was the development of the Roman law into a great body of legal precepts and principles leavened throughout with ethical principles of universal applicability, and the gradual substitution of this Roman law for the innumerable local usages of ancient communities. Thus arose the idea of a common Christendom, of a brotherhood of peoples associated both by common beliefs regarding the unseen world and by common principles of action in the daily affairs of life. The common ethical and traditional basis thus established for the future development of the great nationalities of Europe is the most fundamental characteristic distinguishing modern from ancient history.

While, however, it secured these benefits for mankind for all time to come, the Roman political system in itself was one which could not possibly endure. That extension of the franchise which made Rome's conquests possible, was, after all, the extension of a franchise which could only be practically enjoyed within the walls of the imperial city itself. From first to last the device of representation was never thought of, and from first to last the Roman *comitia* remained a primary assembly. The result was that, as the burgherhood enlarged, the assembly became a huge mob as little fitted for the transaction of public business as a town-meeting of all the inhabitants of New York would be. The functions which in Athens were performed by the assembly were accordingly in Rome performed largely by the aristocratic senate; and for the conflicts consequently arising between the senatorial and the popular parties it was difficult to find any adequate constitutional check. Outside of Italy, moreover, in the absence of a representative system, the Roman government was a despotism which, whether more or less oppressive, could in the nature of things be nothing else than a despotism. But nothing is more dangerous for a free people than the attempt to govern a dependent people despotically. The bad government kills out

the good government as surely as slave-labor destroys free-labor, or as a debased currency drives out a sound currency. The existence of proconsuls in the provinces, with great armies at their beck and call, brought about such results as might have been predicted, as soon as the growing anarchy at home furnished a valid excuse for armed interference. In the case of the Roman world, however, the result is not to be deplored, for it simply substituted a government that was practicable under the circumstances for one that had become demonstrably impracticable.

As regards the provinces the change from senatorial to imperial government at Rome was a great gain, inasmuch as it substituted an orderly and responsible administration for irregular and irresponsible extortion. For a long time, too, it was no part of the imperial policy to interfere with local customs and privileges. But, in the absence of a representative system, the centralizing tendency inseparable from the position of such a government proved to be irresistible. And the strength of this centralizing tendency was further enhanced by the military character of the government which was necessitated by perpetual frontier warfare against the barbarians. As year after year went by, the provincial towns and cities were governed less and less by their local magistrates, more and more by prefects responsible to the emperor only. There were other co-operating causes, economical and social, for the decline of the empire; but this change alone, which was consummated by the time of Diocletian, was quite enough to burn out the candle of Roman strength at both ends. With the decrease in the power of the local governments came an increase in the burdens of taxation and conscription that were laid upon them.* And as "the dislocation of commerce and industry caused by the barbarian inroads, and the increasing demands of the central administration for the payment of its countless officials and the maintenance of its troops, all went together," the load at last became greater "than human nature could endure." By the time of the great invasions of the fifth century, local political life had gone far towards extinction throughout Roman Europe, and the tribal organization of the Teutons prevailed in the struggle simply because it had come to be politically stronger than any organization that was left to oppose it.

We have now seen how the two great political systems that were founded upon the ancient city both ended in failure, though both achieved enormous and lasting results. And we have seen how largely both these political failures were due to the absence of the principle of representation from the public life of Greece and Rome. The chief problem of civilization, from the political point of view, has always been how to secure concerted action among men on a great scale without sacrificing local independence. The ancient history of Europe shows that it is not possible to solve this problem without the aid of the principle of representation. Greece, until overcome by external force, sacredly maintained local self-government, but in securing permanent concert of action it was conspicuously unsuccessful. Rome secured concert of action on a gigantic scale, and transformed the thousand unconnected tribes and cities it conquered into an organized European world, but in doing this it went far towards extinguishing local self-government. The advent of the Teutons upon the scene seems therefore to have been necessary, if only to supply the indispensable element without which the dilemma of civilization could not have been surmounted. The turbulence of Europe during the Teutonic migrations were so great and so long continued that on a superficial view one might be excused for regarding the good work of Rome as largely undone. And in the feudal isolation of effort and apparent incapacity for combined action which characterized the different parts of Europe after the downfall of the Carolingian empire, it might well have seemed that political society had reverted towards a primitive type of structure. In truth, however, the retrogradation was much slighter than appeared on the surface. Feudalism itself, with its curious net-work of fealties and obligations running through the fabric of society in every direction, was by no means purely disintegrative in

* Arnold, *Roman Provincial Administration*, 237.

its tendencies. The mutual relations of rival baronies were by no means like those of rival clans or tribes in pre-Roman days. The central power of Rome, though no longer exerted politically through curators and prefects, was no less effective in the potent hands of the clergy and in the traditions of the imperial jurisprudence by which the legal ideas of mediæval society were so strongly colored. So powerful, indeed, was this twofold influence of Rome that in the later Middle Ages, when the modern nationalities had fairly taken shape, it was the capacity for local self-government—in spite of all the Teutonic reinforcements it had had—that had suffered much more than the capacity for national consolidation. Among the great modern nations it was only England—which in its political development had remained more independent of the Roman law and the Roman church than even the Teutonic fatherland itself—it was only England that came out of the mediæval crucible with its Teutonic self-government substantially intact. On the mainland only two little spots, at the two extremities of the old Teutonic world, had fared equally well. At the mouth of the Rhine the little Dutch communities were prepared to lead the attack in the terrible battle for freedom with which the drama of modern history was ushered in. In the impregnable mountain fastnesses of upper Germany the Swiss cantons had bid defiance alike to Austrian tyrant and to Burgundian invader, and had preserved in its purest form the rustic democracy of their Aryan forefathers. By a curious coincidence, both these free peoples, in their efforts towards national unity, were led to frame federal unions, and one of these political achievements is, from the stand-point of universal history, of very great significance. The old League of High Germany, which earned immortal renown at Morgarten and Sempach, consisted of German-speaking cantons only. But in the fifteenth century the League won by force of arms a small bit of Italian territory about Lake Lugano, and in the sixteenth the powerful city of Bern annexed the Burgundian bishopric of Lausanne and rescued the free city of Geneva from the clutches of the Duke of Savoy. Other Burgundian possessions of Savoy were seized by the canton of Freiburg; and after awhile all these subjects and allies were admitted on equal terms into the confederation. The result is that modern Switzerland is made up of what might seem to be most discordant and unmanageable elements. Four languages—German, French, Italian, and Rhætian—are spoken within the limits of the confederacy; and in point of religion the cantons are sharply divided as Catholic and Protestant. Yet in spite of all this, Switzerland is as thoroughly united in feeling as any nation in Europe. To the German-speaking Catholic of Altdorf the German Catholics of Bavaria are foreigners, while the French-speaking Protestants of Geneva are fellow-countrymen. Deeper down even than these deep-seated differences of speech and creed lies the feeling that comes from the common possession of a political freedom that is greater than that possessed by surrounding peoples. Such has been the happy outcome of the first attempt at federal union made by men of Teutonic descent. Complete independence in local affairs, when combined with adequate representation in the federal council, has affected such an intense cohesion of interests throughout the nation as no centralized government, however cunningly devised, could ever have secured.

Until the nineteenth century, however, the federal form of government had given no clear indication of its capacity for holding together great bodies of men, spread over vast territorial areas, in orderly and peaceful relations with one another. The empire of Trajan and Marcus Aurelius still remained the greatest known example of political aggregation; and men who argued from simple historic precedent without that power of analyzing precedents which the comparative method has supplied, came not unnaturally to the conclusions that great political aggregates have an inherent tendency towards breaking up, and that great political aggregates cannot be maintained except by a strongly centralized administration and at the sacrifice of local self-government. A century ago the very idea of a stable federation of forty powerful states, covering a territory nearly equal in area to the whole of Europe, carried on by a republican government elected by universal suffrage, and

guaranteeing to every tiniest village its full meed of local independence—the very idea of all this would have been scouted as a thoroughly impracticable, Utopian dream. And such scepticism would have been quite justifiable, for European history did not seem to afford any precedents upon which such a forecast of the future could be logically based. Between the various nations of Europe there has certainly existed an element of political community, bequeathed by the Roman Empire, manifested during the Middle Ages in a common relationship to the Church, and in modern times in a common adherence to certain uncodified rules of international law, more or less imperfectly defined and enforced. Between England and Spain, for example, or between France and Austria, there has never been such utter political severance as existed normally between Greece and Persia, or Rome and Carthage. But this community of political inheritance in Europe, it is needless to say, falls very far short of the degree of community implied in a federal union; and so great is the diversity of language and of creed, and of local historic development with the deep-seated prejudices attendant thereupon, that the formation of a European federation could hardly be looked for except as the result of mighty though quiet and subtle influences operating for a long time from without. From what direction, and in what manner, such an irresistible though perfectly pacific pressure is likely to be exerted in the future, I shall endeavor to show elsewhere. At present we have to observe that the experiment of federal union on a grand scale required as its conditions, *first*, a vast extent of unoccupied country which could be settled without much warfare by men of the same race and speech, and *secondly*, on the part of settlers, a rich inheritance of political training such as is afforded by long ages of self-government. The Atlantic coast of North America, easily accessible to Europe, yet remote enough to be freed from the political complications of the Old World, furnished the first of these conditions: the history of the English people through fifty generations furnished the second. It was through English self-government that England alone, among the great nations of Europe, was able to found durable and self-supporting colonies. I have now to add that it was only England, among the great nations of Europe, that could send forth colonists capable of dealing successfully with the difficult problem of forming such a political aggregate as the United States have become. For obviously the preservation of local self-government is essential to the very idea of a federal union. Without the town-meeting, or its equivalent in some form or other, the federal union would become *ipso facto* converted into a centralizing imperial government. Should anything of this sort ever happen—should American towns ever come to be ruled by prefects appointed at Washington, and should American States ever become like the administrative departments of France, or even like the counties of England at the present day—then the time will have come when men may safely predict the break-up of the American political system by reason of its overgrown dimensions and the diversity of interests between its parts. States so unlike one another as Maine and Louisiana and California cannot be held together by the stiff bonds of a centralizing government. The durableness of the federal union lies in its flexibility, and it is this flexibility which makes it the only kind of government, according to modern ideas, that is permanently applicable to a whole continent. If the United States were to-day a consolidated republic like France, recent events in California might have disturbed the peace of the country. But in the federal union, if California, as a State sovereign within its own sphere, adopts a grotesque constitution that aims at infringing on the rights of capitalists, the other States are not directly affected. They may disapprove, but they have neither the right nor the desire to interfere. Meanwhile the laws of nature quietly operate to repair the blunder. Capital flows away from California, and the business of the State is damaged, until presently the ignorant demagogues lose favor, the silly constitution becomes a dead-letter, and its formal repeal begins to be talked of. Not the smallest ripple of excitement disturbs the profound peace of the country at large. It is in this complete independence that is preserved by every State, in all matters

save those in which the federal principle itself is concerned, that we find the surest guarantee of the permanence of the American political system. Obviously no race of men, save the race to which habits of self-government and the skilful use of political representation had come to be as second nature, could ever have succeeded in founding such a system.

Yet even by men of English race, working without let or hinderance from any foreign source, and with the better part of a continent at their disposal for a field to work in, so great a political problem as that of the American Union has not been solved without much toil and trouble. The great puzzle of civilization—how to secure permanent concert of action without sacrificing independence of action—is a puzzle which has taxed the ingenuity of Americans as well as of older Aryan peoples. In the year 1788 when our federal union was completed, the problem had already occupied the minds of American statesmen for a century and a half—that is to say, ever since the English settlement of Massachusetts. In 1643 a New England confederation was formed between Massachusetts and Connecticut, together with Plymouth, since merged in Massachusetts, and New Haven, since merged in Connecticut. The confederation was formed for defence against the French in Canada, the Dutch on the Hudson River, and the Indians. But owing simply to the inequality in the sizes of these colonies—Massachusetts more than outweighing the other three combined—the practical working of this confederacy was never very successful. In 1754, just before the outbreak of the great war which drove the French from America, a general Congress of the colonies was held at Albany, and a comprehensive scheme of union was proposed by Benjamin Franklin, but nothing came of the project at that time. The commercial rivalry between the colonies, and their disputes over boundary-lines, were then quite like the similar phenomena with which Europe had so long been familiar. In 1756 Georgia and South Carolina actually came to blows over the navigation of the Savannah River. The idea that the thirteen colonies could ever overcome their mutual jealousies so far as to unite in a single political body was received at that time in England with a derision like that which a proposal for a permanent federation of European states would excite in many minds to-day. It was confidently predicted that if the common allegiance to the British crown were once withdrawn, the colonies would forthwith proceed to destroy themselves with internecine war. In fact, however, it was the shaking off of allegiance to the British crown, and the common trials and sufferings of the war of independence, that at last welded the colonies together and made a federal union possible. As it was, the union was consummated only by degrees. By the Articles of Confederation, agreed on by Congress in 1777, but not adopted by all the States until 1781, the federal government acted only upon the several State governments, and not directly upon individuals; there was no federal judiciary for the decision of constitutional questions arising out of the relations between the States; and the Congress was not provided with any efficient means of raising a revenue or of enforcing its legislative decrees. Under such a government the difficulty of insuring concerted action was so great that, but for the transcendent personal qualities of Washington, the bungling mismanagement of the British ministry, and the timely aid of the French fleet, the war of independence would most likely have ended in failure. After the independence of the colonies was acknowledged, the formation of a more perfect union was seen to be the only method of securing peace and making a nation which should be respected by foreign powers; and so in 1788, after much discussion, the present Constitution of the United States was adopted—a Constitution which satisfied very few people at the time, and which was from beginning to end a series of compromises, yet which has proved in its working a masterpiece of political wisdom.

The first great compromise answered to the initial difficulty of securing approximate equality of weight in the federal councils between States of unequal size. The simple device by which this difficulty was at last surmounted has proved effectual, although the inequalities between the States have greatly increased. To-day the population of New York is more than

eighty times that of Nevada. In area the State of Rhode Island is smaller than Montenegro, while the State of Texas is larger than the Austrian Empire, with Bavaria and Würtemberg thrown in. Yet New York and Nevada, Rhode Island and Texas each send two Senators to Washington, while on the other hand in the lower House each State has a number of representatives proportioned to its population. The upper House of Congress is therefore a federal, while the lower House is a national body, and the government is brought into direct contact with the people without endangering the equal rights of the several States.

The second great compromise of the American Constitution consists in the series of arrangements by which sovereignty is divided between the States and the federal government. In all domestic legislation and jurisdiction, civil and criminal, in all matters relating to tenure of property, marriage and divorce, the fulfilment of contracts and the punishment of malefactors, each separate State is as completely a sovereign state as France or Great Britain. A concrete illustration may not be superfluous. If a criminal is condemned to death in Pennsylvania, the royal prerogative of pardon resides in the governor of Pennsylvania: the President of the United States has no more authority in the case than the Czar of Russia. Nor in civil cases can an appeal lie from the State courts to the Supreme Court of the United States, save where express provision has been made in the Constitution. Within its own sphere the State is supreme. The chief attributes of sovereignty with which the several States have parted are the coining of money, the carrying of mails, the imposition of tariff dues, the granting of patents and copyrights, the declaration of war, and the maintenance of a navy. The regular army is supported and controlled by the federal government, but each State maintains its own militia, which it is bound to use in case of internal disturbance before calling upon the central government for aid. In time of war, however, these militias come under the control of the central government. Thus every American citizen lives under two governments, the functions of which are clearly and intelligibly distinct.

To insure the stability of the federal union thus formed, the Constitution created a "system of United States courts extending throughout the States, empowered to define the boundaries of federal authority, and to enforce its decisions by federal power." This omnipresent federal judiciary was undoubtedly the most important creation of the statesmen who framed the Constitution. The closely knit relations which it established between the States contributed powerfully to the growth of a feeling of national solidarity throughout the whole country. The United States to-day cling together with a coherency far greater than the coherency of any ordinary federation or league. Yet the primary aspect of the federal Constitution was undoubtedly that of a permanent league, in which each State, while retaining its domestic sovereignty intact, renounced forever its right to make war upon its neighbors, and relegated its international interests to the care of a central council in which all the States were alike represented and a central tribunal endowed with purely judicial functions of interpretation. It was the first attempt in the history of the world to apply on a grand scale to the relations between States the same legal methods of procedure which, as long applied in all civilized countries to the relations between individuals, have rendered private warfare obsolete. And it was so far successful that, during a period of seventy-two years in which the United States increased fourfold in extent, tenfold in population, and more than tenfold in wealth and power, the federal union maintained a state of peace more profound than the *pax romana*.

Forty years ago this unexampled state of peace was suddenly interrupted by a tremendous war, which in its results, however, has served only to bring out with fresh emphasis the pacific implications of federalism. With the eleven revolted States at first completely conquered and then reinstated with full rights and privileges in the federal Union, with their people accepting in good faith the results of the contest, with their leaders not executed as traitors, but admitted again to seats in Congress and in the cabinet, and with all this accomplished

without any violent constitutional changes—I think we may fairly claim that the strength of the pacific implications of federalism has been more strikingly demonstrated than if there had been no war at all. Certainly the world never beheld such a spectacle before.

Federalist, THE, a series of remarkable essays in favor of the national Constitution which were written by Alexander Hamilton with the assistance of Madison, Jay, and others. Hamilton wrote the larger half of these essays, which were probably the determining cause resulting in the adoption of the Constitution of the United States. They were subsequently published in book form under the above title.

Federalists. While the national Constitution was under discussion throughout the Union, in 1788, and it was passing the ordeal of State conventions, its advocates were called Federalists, because the effect of the Constitution would be to bind the several States more closely as a so-called confederation. They formed a distinct party that year, and held supreme political power in the republic until the close of the century. The leading members of the party were Washington, Hamilton, Adams, Jay, and many of the less distinguished patriots of the Revolution. Their opponents were called Anti-Federalists. In the contests of the French Revolution, which had influence upon public opinion in the United States, the Federalists leaned towards England, and the Anti-Federalists or Republicans towards France. In the Presidential election of 1800, the Federalists were defeated and Jefferson was elected. The party became unpopular because of its opposition to the War of 1812; and it fell into fatal disrepute because of the Hartford Convention, whose proceedings, done in secret, were supposed to be treasonable. The party had become so weak in 1816 that Monroe, the Republican candidate for President, received the electoral votes of all the States but two. At his re-election, in 1820, the vote of the States was unanimous for him. Then the party was disbanded. See ANTI-FEDERALIST PARTY.

Feds and **Confeds,** nicknames used during the Civil War for the Union and Confederate soldiers respectively.

Feeble-minded, SCHOOLS FOR THE. Institutions for this class of defectives are maintained by twenty-five States and the District of Columbia, and by seventeen private organizations in various parts of the country. The twenty-six public institutions report a total of 302 instructors, 1,292 assistants caring for inmates, and 17,549 inmates, of whom 10,679 were in school or kindergarten grades; 6,249 were in industrial departments, and 2,210 were being taught a trade or occupation. These institutions had grounds and buildings valued at $12,044,576; and total expenditures in a year, $4,384,931. The private institutions had 93 instructors, 211 assistants, 927 inmates, of whom 424 were in schools or kindergarten grades, and grounds and buildings valued at $694,000.

Fellows, JOHN, military officer; born in Pomfret, Conn., in 1733; was in the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR (*q. v.*); was a member of the Massachusetts Provincial Congress in 1775; led a company of minute-men to Cambridge after the skirmish at Lexington, and was made brigadier-general of militia in June, 1776. He commanded a brigade in the battles of Long Island, White Plains, and Bemis's Heights, and was very active in the capture of Burgoyne, October, 1777. After the war he was high sheriff of Berkshire county. He died in Sheffield, Mass., Aug. 1, 1808.

Felt, JOSEPH BARLOW, historian; born in Salem, Mass., Dec. 22, 1789; graduated at Dartmouth in 1813, and entered the ministry. In 1836 he was asked to arrange the state papers of Massachusetts, which at that time were in confusion. He was librarian of the Massachusetts Historical Society in 1842–48, and president of the New **England Historico**-Genealogical Society in 1850–53. He was the author of *Annals of Salem; History of Ipswich, Essex, and Hamilton; Historical Account of Massachusetts Currency; Memoirs* of Roger Conant, Hugh Peters, and William S. Shaw; also of *The Customs of New England.* He died in Salem, Mass., Sept. 8, 1869.

Felton, CORNELIUS CONWAY, educator; born in West Newbury, Mass., Nov. 6, 1807; graduated at Harvard in 1827; appointed Latin tutor there in 1829, and Professor of Greek Literature in 1839;

and was president of Harvard from 1860 till his death in Chester, Pa., Feb. 26, 1862. He is the author of *Life of William Eaton* in Sparks's *American Biographies*, and many books on general literature.

Felton, SAMUEL MORSE, engineer; born in West Newbury, Mass., July 17, 1809; graduated at Harvard in 1834; connected with the Fitchburg Railroad until 1851, when he became president of the Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad. It was he who successfully planned the secret passage of Mr. Lincoln from Harrisburg to Washington, and thereby defeated a deep-laid plot to capture the President-elect. When communication through Baltimore was impossible (in April, 1861), he devised a plan for transporting troops *via* Annapolis. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 24, 1889.

Fendall, JOSIAS, colonial governor. In 1655 Governor Stone ordered him to seize the public stores at Patuxent, but he was captured in the fight which followed. Afterwards he started another insurrection, and was made governor, July 10, 1656, as a reward for his alleged services in behalf of the proprietary government. In December, 1660, he was deposed, for having opposed his patron, and in December, 1661, was found guilty of treason and sentenced to be exiled, but later was pardoned and compelled to pay a small fine. In 1681 he was banished for participating in seditious practices, and a fine of 140 lbs. of tobacco was imposed on him.

Fénelon, FRANÇOIS DE SALIGNAC DE LA MOTHE-FÉNELON, French prelate; born in Dordogne, France, Aug. 6, 1651; was sent to Canada while yet inferior in orders, and, during his missionary service there, he so boldly attacked the public authorities for their shortcomings that Frontenac had him arrested, while serving in the Seminary of St. Sulpice, and put in prison. It is believed that this noted archbishop, orator, and author received many hints, while engaged in missionary work in Canada, which were subsequently put into telling form in his noted *Aventures de Télémaque* (1699). He died in Cambria, France, Jan. 7, 1715.

Fenian Brotherhood, THE. Notwithstanding the unfriendliness and positive enmity of the government of Great Britain to the United States during the Civil War, the latter was ever faithful to its treaty stipulations. The large numbers of Irish soldiers disbanded in 1865 were greatly excited by the Fenian troubles at that time prevalent in Ireland. In October, 1865, at a convention of Fenians in New York, the invasion of Canada was determined upon. In the following February another convention was held, at which there was a strong sentiment in favor of the invasion. Shortly after this, the former head-centre of the organization was displaced from office by the election of Col. William R. Roberts, and this change interfered seriously with the unanimity of action in the body. Early in April an attempt was made to gather arms and men for an advance upon New Brunswick, and 500 Fenians assembled at Eastport, Me. The United States authorities interfered, however; aid which was expected from New York and Boston did not arrive; and the men disbanded. On May 19, 1,200 stands of arms, which had been sent to Rouse's Point, were seized by the United States government, and on May 30 a similar seizure was made at St. Albans. June 1, about 1,500 men crossed into Canada at Buffalo. The Dominion militia had been called out, and on June 2 a severe skirmish occurred, in which the Fenians lost heavily in prisoners and wounded men, though not many were killed. Attempting to get back over the border into this country, 700 of them were captured by the United States authorities. Other bands had by this time reached the frontier, but as a cordon of United States troops, under General Meade, guarded the line, they made no attempt to cross. Though large sums of money were raised to aid a further invasion, and considerable excitement prevailed, the resolute action of the United States authorities prevented it. No punishment was accorded the actors in this affair beyond a brief term of imprisonment for such as were taken.

Fenian Invasion of Canada. See FENIAN BROTHERHOOD.

Fenton, REUBEN EATON, statesman; born in Carroll, Chautauqua co., N. Y., July 4, 1819; was educated at Pleasant Hill and Fredonia academies, in his native county; and was admitted to the bar

in 1841. Finding the practice of law uncongenial, he entered business, and acquired a moderate fortune. Meanwhile, he became interested in politics, and in 1843–51 served as supervisor of Carroll. In 1852 he was elected to Congress by the Democrats, and there opposed the further extension of slavery. This action resulted in his defeat, in 1854, for a second term, and he united with the Republican party, by whom, in 1856, he was elected to Congress, where he remained till 1864, when he resigned to become governor of New York, in which office he served two terms. In 1869–75 he was in the United States Senate, and in 1878 was chairman of the United States commission to the International Monetary Conference in Paris. He died in Jamestown, N. Y., Aug. 25, 1885.

Fenwick, GEORGE, colonist; came to America in 1636 to take charge of the infant colony of SAYBROOK (*q. v.*), in Connecticut. He returned to England, and came back in 1639, and from that time governed Saybrook till December, 1644, when its jurisdiction and territory were sold to the Connecticut colony at Hartford. Fenwick was one of the judges who tried and condemned Charles I. He died in England in 1657.

Fenwick, JOHN, Quaker colonist; a founder of the colony of West Jersey; born in England in 1618; obtained a grant of land in the western part of New Jersey in 1673; emigrated thither in 1675; and settled in Salem. His claim was resisted by Governor Andros, of New York, and he was arrested and cast into jail, where he remained about two years. He subsequently conveyed his claim to West Jersey to William Penn. He died in England in 1683.

Ferguson, ELIZABETH, patriot; born in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1739; daughter of Dr. Græme, of Græme Park, near Philadelphia; became famous during the Revolution by a futile mission which she good-naturedly undertook. She was a cultivated woman, and enjoyed the personal friendship of many eminent persons. Her husband was in the British army, yet she possessed the esteem and confidence of both Whigs and Tories. Johnstone, one of the peace commissioners sent over here in 1778, finding they could do nothing with the Congress, employed Mrs. Ferguson to sound Gen. Joseph Reed as to his disposition to aid the royal government in bringing about a reconciliation between it and the revolted colonies. She was patriotic and judicious. Johnstone instructed her as to what she should say to Reed, and she performed the errand without losing the esteem of any one. Her husband never joined her after the war. His estate was confiscated, but the State of Pennsylvania returned a part of it to her in 1781. After the war she applied herself to literature and philanthropy. She died in Montgomery county, Pa., Feb. 23, 1801.

Ferguson, PATRICK, military officer; born in England; son of Judge James Ferguson and a nephew of Lord Elibank; entered the British army at the age of eighteen, and came to America in the spring of 1777, serving under Cornwallis, first in the North and then in the South. After the siege of Charleston in 1780 he was promoted to major, and was detached by Cornwallis to embody the Tories in South Carolina. He was killed in the battle of KING'S MOUNTAIN (*q. v.*), Oct. 7, 1780.

Fergusson, ARTHUR WALSH, insular official; born in Benicia, Cal., Dec. 4, 1859; became official interpreter of the International American Conference in 1889, and of the Intercontinental Railway Commission in 1891; Secretary of the United States Chilian Claims Commission in 1893, and of the Venezuelan Claims Commission in 1894; chief translator of the Bureau of American Republics in 1897–1900; secretary to the Philippine Commission in 1900–01; and executive secretary for the Philippine Islands from 1901 till his death in Manila, June 29, 1908.

Fernow, BERTHOLD, historian; born in Prussian Poland, Nov. 28, 1837; came to the United States in 1860; served in the National army in 1862–64; was New York State archivist in 1876–89; and was also one of the editors and translators of *Documents Relating to the Colonial History of New York; Records of New Amsterdam;* and *New York in the Revolution.* He has also published *Albany, and its Place in the History of the United States; The Ohio Valley in Colonial Days;* and contributions

to the *Narrative and Critical History of America.*

Ferrero, EDWARD, military officer; born of Italian parents in Granada, Spain, Jan. 18, 1831; was brought to the United States while an infant. His parents taught dancing, and that became his profession, which he taught at the United States Military Academy. When the Civil War broke out he raised a regiment (Shepard Rifles), and as its colonel accompanied Burnside in his expedition to the coast of North Carolina early in 1862. He commanded a brigade under General Reno, and served in the Army of Virginia, under General Pope, in the summer of 1862. He was promoted to brigadier-general of volunteers in September, and was in the battles of South Mountain, Antietam, and Fredericksburg. He served in the siege of Vicksburg (1863), and commanded a division at the siege of Knoxville, in defence of Fort Sanders. In the operations against Petersburg he led a division of colored troops, and, Dec. 2, 1864, was brevetted major-general of volunteers. He died in New York City, Dec. 11, 1899.

Ferris, BENJAMIN, historian; for many years a resident of Philadelphia, Pa., from which place he removed to Wilmington. He is the author of *History of the Early Settlements on the Delaware, from its Discovery to its Colonization under William Penn.* He died in Wilmington, Del., in 1867.

Ferro, MERIDIAN OF. A line drawn due north and south through the poles, from which longitudes are reckoned, is a meridian. Ferro, the most western Canary isle, known to the ancients and rediscovered in 1402, was taken as the prime meridian by the geographers of Columbus's time. See COLUMBUS, CHRISTOPHER.

Ferry, ORRIS SANFORD, statesman; born in Bethel, Conn., Aug. 15, 1823; graduated at Yale in 1844; held many State offices; colonel of the 5th Connecticut U. S. V., July, 1861; served through the war; United States Senator, 1867–75. He died in Norwalk, Conn., Nov. 21, 1875.

Ferry, THOMAS WHITE, statesman; born in Mackinac, Mich., June 1, 1827; member of Congress, 1865–71; United States Senator, 1871–83. He died in Grand Haven, Mich., Oct. 14, 1896.

Fersen, AXEL, COUNT, military officer; born in Stockholm, Sweden, in 1755; came to America on the staff of Rochambeau; fought under Lafayette. Returning to France, he became a favorite at court.

AXEL FERSEN.

After the Revolution he returned to Sweden, and in 1801 was made grand marshal of Sweden. On suspicion of complicity in the death of Prince Christian of Sweden, he was seized by a mob, while marshalling the funeral procession, and tortured to death, June 20, 1810.

Fessenden, THOMAS GREEN, author; born in Walpole, N. H., April 22, 1771; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1796; began the practice of law in Bellows Falls, Vt., in 1812. His publications include *Democracy Unveiled; Laws of Patents for New Inventions,* etc. He died in Boston, Mass., Nov. 11, 1837.

Fessenden, WILLIAM PITT, legislator; born in Boscawen, N. H., Oct. 16, 1806; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1823; admitted to the bar in 1827; member of the Maine legislature two terms; and was elected to Congress in 1841. From Feb. 24, 1854, till his death he was United States Senator, excepting when Secretary of the Treasury from July, 1864, to March, 1865. He was one of the founders of the Republican party in 1856, and throughout the Civil War did eminent service as chairman of the finance committee of the Senate. He died in Portland, Me., Sept. 8, 1869.

Few, WILLIAM, jurist; born in Balti-

more county, Md., June 8, 1748. His ancestors came to America with William Penn. His family went to North Carolina in 1758, and in 1776 settled in Georgia, where he assisted in framing the State constitution. He was in the military service, and in 1778 was made State surveyor-general. In 1780–83 and 1786 he was in Congress, and in 1787 assisted in framing the national Constitution. He was United States Senator in 1789–93; and a judge on the bench of Georgia three years. He died in Fishkill, N. Y., July 16, 1828.

F. F. V. A term of Northern invention applied to the leading Southern families. It is an abbreviation of "First Families of Virginia."

Fiat Money, a colloquial term applied especially to paper money, issued by a government, marked as legal tender for a certain value, but without a guarantee that it will be redeemed by the government for metallic money or its equivalent. Irredeemable and inconvertible money are other terms applied to such issues. In a particular sense the phrase was applied to the "greenback" certificates authorized by the United States government in 1862. An aggregate of $450,000,000 of such money was put into circulation between 1862 and 1865, to which Congress gave the quality of legal tender for all debts. The first issue of such inconvertible paper money in this country was made by the colony of Massachusetts to pay soldiers in 1690. About twenty years later the other New England colonies and New York and New Jersey also made use of the expedient. Between 1775 and 1779 the Continental Congress authorized the issue of about $200,000,000 of such scrip, which the States individually made legal tender. After the Revolution many of the States issued paper money on their own account. See CURRENCY.

Field, CYRUS WEST, benefactor; born in Stockbridge, Mass., Nov. 30, 1819; was educated in his native town, and went to work when fifteen years old. In 1840 he began the manufacture and sale of paper on his own account, and in fifteen years became so prosperous that he was able to partially retire. About this time he became interested in ocean telegraphy, and for some time pondered the question whether a cable could not be stretched across the Atlantic. In 1854 he obtained from the Newfoundland legislature the exclusive right for fifty years to land cables on that island to be continued to the United States. He next formed a corporation consisting of Peter Cooper, Moses Taylor, Marshall O. Roberts, and Chandler White, and known as the New York, Newfoundland, and London Telegraph Company, to procure and lay a cable. After many failures and disappointments a cable was successfully laid across the Atlantic in 1866 (see ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH). For his achievement he received a medal from Congress and the thanks of the nation. In 1867 the Paris Exposition bestowed upon him the grand medal, its highest honor. He also was the recipient of many other medals and honors. Subsequently he became actively identified with the construction and management of elevated railroads in New York City. He died in New York, July 12, 1892.

CYRUS WEST FIELD.

Field, DAVID DUDLEY, lawyer; born in Haddam, Conn., Feb. 13, 1805; brother of Cyrus West Field; graduated at Williams College in 1825; studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1825 in New York, where he began practice. In 1836 he went to Europe and studied English and French court methods, codes, and civil laws. Returning to the United States he became strongly impressed with the conviction that New York State needed a codification of its common law. To promote this reform he sought an election to

the legislature in 1841, and when he was defeated sent drafts of three bills to the Assembly, where they were referred to the judiciary committee, but no further action was taken. He was also defeated

DAVID DUDLEY FIELD.

as a candidate to the Constitutional Convention, but kept up his agitation by issuing a number of articles on *The Reorganization of the Judiciary.* In January, 1847, prior to the meeting of the legislature, he published an essay on *What Shall be Done with the Practice of the Courts?* and followed it by requesting the appointment of a commission to provide for the abolition of existing pleadings and forms of action at common law, and for a uniform course of procedure. In the following April such a commission was appointed, and later Mr. Field became a member of it. In February, 1848, the first instalment of the *Code of Civil Procedure* was presented to the legislature and soon adopted. Other reports were made until Jan. 1, 1850, when the last codification of civil and criminal laws was submitted. In 1857 the legislature passed an act making Mr. Field chairman of the commission to codify all the laws of the State not yet so treated. In 1865 this work was finished, but only the penal code was adopted. Within a few years twenty-four States and Territories adopted his *Code of Civil Procedure,* and eighteen his *Code of Criminal Procedure.* Besides these works he prepared *The Draft Outlines of an International Code.* He died in New York City, April 13, 1894.

Field, DAVID DUDLEY, clergyman, son of Timothy Field, a captain in the War of the Revolution; born in East Guilford, Conn., May 20, 1781. He wrote histories of Berkshire and Middlesex counties; *Genealogy of the Brainerd Family,* etc. He died in Stockbridge, Mass., April 15, 1867.

Field, EUGENE, poet; born in St. Louis, Mo., Sept. 2, 1850; was educated at Williams and Knox colleges, and at the University of Missouri. His poems for children are admirable for their simplicity. He died in Chicago, Nov. 4, 1895.

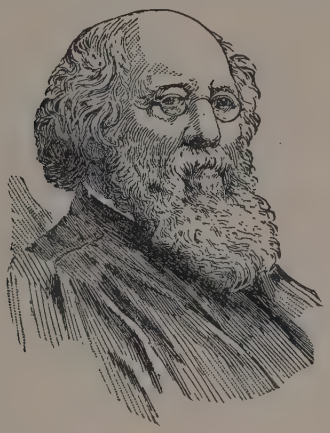
Field, JAMES GAVEN, lawyer; born in Walnut, Va., Feb. 24, 1826; went to California as paymaster United States army in 1848; returned to Virginia in 1850; enlisted in the Confederate army in 1861; and lost a leg at the battle of CEDAR CREEK (*q. v.*). He was attorney-general of Virginia in 1877–82; and the candidate of the People's party for Vice-President in 1892. He died in 1901.

Field, MARSHALL, born in Conway, Mass., 1835; removed to Chicago in 1856; with Potter Palmer, who retired in 1867, and Levi Z. Leiter, who retired in 1881, he established the firm which, in 1881, became Marshall Field & Co., the largest wholesale and retail dry-goods business in the world. His name has been identified with the growth of Chicago as a leading citizen and philanthropist. He founded the Field Museum and endowed it at a total cost of over $10,000,000. He died in New York City, Jan. 16, 1906, leaving a fortune of over $150,000,000.

Field, RICHARD STOCKTON, statesman; born in White Hill, N. J., Dec. 31, 1803; a grandson of Richard Stockton, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence; graduated at Princeton in 1821, and admitted to the bar in 1825. In 1862 he was appointed to the United States Senate for the unexpired term of John R. Thompson; and in 1863 became district judge of the United States Court for the District of New Jersey. For many years Judge Field was president of the New Jersey Historical Society. He was the author of *The Provincial Courts of New Jersey; The Constitution not a Com-*

pact between Sovereign States; An Oration on the Life and Character of Abraham Lincoln, etc. He died in Princeton, N. J., May 25, 1870.

Field, STEPHEN JOHNSON, jurist; born in Haddam, Conn., Nov. 4, 1816; brother of Cyrus West and David Dudley Field; graduated at Williams College, in 1837; studied law and was admitted to the



STEPHEN JOHNSON FIELD.

bar in 1841. He went to San Francisco in 1849 and opened a law office, but got no clients. In 1850 he settled in Yubaville (afterwards Marysville), which in January of that year had been founded at Nye's Ranch. He was soon made justice of the peace, and for a time was the entire government. In the autumn of 1850 he was elected a member of the first legislature under the State constitution. As a member of the judiciary committee he drew up a code for the government of the State courts, and prepared civil, criminal, and mining laws, which were later generally adopted in the new Western States. In 1857 he was elected a justice of the Supreme Court of California, for the term of six years, but before his term began a vacancy occurred in the court and he was appointed for the unexpired term. In September, 1859, David S. Terry, chief-justice of the court, resigned and Justice Field took his place. He remained in this office till 1863, when President Lincoln appointed him an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court. After holding this office for more than thirty-four years he resigned in April, 1897. During his experience in this court he wrote 620 opinions, which, with fifty-seven in the Circuit Court, and 365 in the Supreme Court of California, made an aggregate of 1,042 cases decided by him. He died in Washington, D. C., April 9, 1899.

Field, THOMAS W., historian; born in Onondaga Hill, N. Y., in 1820; was the author of a *History of the Battle of Long Island; Historic and Antiquarian Scenes in Brooklyn and Vicinity; An Essay Towards an Indian Bibliography*, etc. He was well known for his extremely valuable collection of books on American history, which was sold at auction shortly after his death, in Brooklyn, N. Y., Nov. 25, 1881.

Fields, JAMES THOMAS, publisher; born in Portsmouth, N. H., Dec. 31, 1817; was educated in his native place; went to Boston and became a clerk in a book-store in 1834. Soon after he reached his majority he became a partner in the publishing firm of Ticknor, Reed & Fields, of which he remained a member till 1870. After retiring from the publishing business Mr. Fields became a lecturer on literary subjects. His published works include a volume of *Poems; A Few Verses for a Few Friends; Yesterdays with Authors; Hawthorne;* and *In and Out of*

JAMES THOMAS FIELDS.

Doors with Charles Dickens. He was editor of the *Atlantic Monthly* in 1862–70, and afterwards (with Edwin P. Whipple) edited the *Family Library of English Poetry.* He died in Boston, April 24, 1881.

Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution. See CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Fifty-four Forty or Fight. 54° 40′ was the accepted southern limit of Alaska in the possession of Russia. The forty-ninth parallel was held by the United States to be the northern limit of the United States against which there could be no claim by England, and, further, that the territory between 49° and 54° 40′ on the Pacific coast was as much the property of the United States as that of England. In 1818 a treaty provided for the joint occupation of the disputed territory by Great Britain and the United States. In 1844 the watch-word of the Democratic party was "Fifty-four forty or fight." Consequently when Polk was elected he claimed this as the boundary of the United States, thus shutting out Great Britain from access to the Pacific Ocean. On June 15, 1846, a compromise was made by which the northern limit of the United States was fixed at 49°.

Filibuster, originally a freebooter; subsequently applied to one who delayed legislation by dilatory motions or similar artifices. Narcisco Lopez with an expedition of armed men sailed from New Orleans, Aug. 3, 1851, and landed near Havana on the 11th. Unable to bring about a rise of the people he was obliged to surrender and on Sept. 1, 1851, was garroted at Havana. Colonel Crittenden, who was associated with Lopez, was also captured and with fifty others was shot at Havana, Aug. 16, 1851. William Walker led a filibustering expedition into Lower California in 1853, but was obliged to retreat and surrendered to the United States authorities of Santiago. He was tried under the neutrality laws and acquitted May 15, 1854. The next year Walker was invited to Nicaragua by one of the local factions. He landed on the Pacific coast of Nicaragua, May 4, 1855, and defeated the Nicaraguans in a battle at Virgin Bay, Sept. 1, 1855. Walker forced his election as President of Nicaragua, but on May 1, 1857, he surrendered to the United States sloop-of-war *Mary* and was taken to New Orleans. In November of that year he again invaded Nicaragua, but was compelled to surrender to the United States frigate *Wabash*. On Aug. 5, 1860, Walker again landed at Truxillo, Honduras, but after short successes was eventually defeated, captured, tried, and shot Oct. 12, 1860.

For many years prior to the American-Spanish War quite a number of filibustering expeditions were fitted out in the United States for the purpose of operating on Cuba. The United States government invariably issued official warning against such hostile actions against Spain, and in a majority of cases intercepted or otherwise prevented the landing of the parties. The most notable of these actions was that of a party which left in the Cuban warship *Virginius*, Oct. 8, 1873, for Cuba. The vessel, under command of Capt. James Fry, was captured by a Spanish war steamer on the 31st, and the officers and 175 volunteers were taken to Santiago, where in the following month Captain Fry and 109 of his associates were shot for piracy. Through the action of the United States government in organizing a strong naval force Spain agreed to surrender the *Virginius* and the remainder of her crew. This was done Dec. 16, and while the *Virginius* was being convoyed to New York it mysteriously sunk off North Carolina.

FILLMORE, MILLARD

Fillmore, MILLARD, thirteenth President of the United States; born in Locke (now Summerhill), Cayuga co., N. Y., June 7, 1800. At the time of his birth Cayuga county was a wilderness, with few settlements, the nearest house to that of the Fillmores being 4 miles distant. Mr. Fillmore's early education was limited, and at the age of fourteen years he was apprenticed to a fuller. He became fond of reading, and at the age of nineteen years desired to study law. He made an arrangement with his master to pay him $30 for the two years of the unexpired term of his apprenticeship, and studied law with Walter Wood, who gave him his board for his services in his office. In 1821 he went on foot to Buffalo, where

he arrived, an entire stranger, with $4 in his pocket. There he continued to study law, paying his expenses by teaching school and assisting in the post-office. In 1823, although he had not completed the requisite period of study to be admitted to the bar, he was admitted, and began practice at Aurora, Cayuga co., where his father then resided. In a few years he stood in the rank of the foremost lawyers in the State. He was admitted to practice in the highest courts of the State in 1829; and the next year he moved to Buffalo, where he practised until 1847, when he was chosen comptroller of the State. Then he retired from the profession. His political life began in 1828, when he was elected to the legislature by the ANTI-MASONIC PARTY (*q. v.*). He served three successive terms, retiring in the spring of 1831. Mr. Fillmore was particularly active in procuring the passage of a law abolishing imprisonment for debt. It was mostly drafted by himself, and passed in 1831. In 1832 he was elected to Congress as an opponent of Jackson's administration. He was re-elected as a Whig in 1836, and retained his seat, by successive re-elections, until 1842, when he declined a renomination. His career in Congress was marked by ability, integrity, and industry. He acted in Congress with Mr. Adams in favor of receiving petitions for the abolition of slavery. He was opposed to the annexation of Texas, and in favor of the abolition of the interstate slave-trade. In September, 1844, Mr. Fillmore was nominated by the Whigs for governor of the State of New York, but was defeated by Silas Wright, the Democratic candidate. Elected comptroller of his State in 1847, Mr. Fillmore filled that responsible office with rare ability and fidelity. In June, 1848, he was nominated by the Whig National Convention for the office of Vice-President of the United States, and was elected, with General Taylor for President. He resigned the office of comptroller in February following; and on the death of the President (July, 1850), Mr. Fillmore was inducted into that high office.

During his administration the slavery question was vehemently discussed, and was finally set at rest, it was hoped, by the passage of various acts which were parts of compromises proposed in the OMNIBUS BILL (*q. v.*) of Mr. Clay in the summer of 1850. It was during his administration that difficulties with Cuba occurred, diplomatic communications with Japan were opened, measures were adopted looking towards the construction of a railway from the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean, and other measures of great public interest occurred. Mr. Fillmore retired from office March 4, 1853, leaving the country in a state of peace within and without, and every department of industry flourishing. In 1852 he was a candidate of the Whig convention for President of the United States, but did not get the nomination. During the spring and summer of 1854 he made an extensive tour through the Southern and Western States; and, in the spring of 1855, after an excursion in New England, he sailed for Europe, where he remained until June, 1856. While at Rome he received the news of his nomination for the Presidency by the NATIVE AMERICAN PARTY (*q. v.*). He accepted it, but Maryland alone gave him its electoral vote. The remainder of his life was spent in Buffalo, where he indulged his taste for historical studies, and where he died, March 8, 1874.

Texas Boundary Controversy.—On Aug. 6, 1850, President Fillmore transmitted the following special message to the Congress concerning the claims of Texas to territory in dispute:

WASHINGTON, *Aug. 6, 1850.*

To the Senate and House of Representatives,—I herewith transmit to the two Houses of Congress a letter from his excellency the governor of Texas, dated on June 14 last, addressed to the late President of the United States, which, not having been answered by him, came into my hands on his death; and I also transmit a copy of the answer which I have felt it to be my duty to cause to be made to that communication.

Congress will perceive that the governor of Texas officially states that by authority of the legislature of that State he despatched a special commissioner with full power and instructions to extend the civil jurisdiction of the State over the

unorganized counties of El Paso, Worth, Presidio, and Santa Fé, situated on its northwestern limits.

He proceeds to say that the commissioner had reported to him in an official form that the military officers employed in the service of the United States stationed at Santa Fé interposed adversely with the inhabitants to the fulfilment of his object in favor of the establishment of a separate State government east of the Rio Grande, and within the rightful limits of the State of Texas. These four counties, which Texas thus proposes to establish and organize as being within her own jurisdiction, extend over the whole of the territory east of the Rio Grande, which has heretofore been regarded as an essential and integral part of the department of New Mexico, and actually governed and possessed by her people until conquered and severed from the republic of Mexico by the American arms.

The legislature of Texas has been called together by her governor for the purpose, as is understood, of maintaining her claim to the territory east of the Rio Grande, and of establishing over it her own jurisdiction and her own laws by force.

These proceedings of Texas may well arrest the attention of all branches of the government of the United States, and I rejoice that they occur while the Congress is yet in session. It is, I fear, far from being impossible that, in consequence of these proceedings of Texas, a crisis may be brought on which shall summon the two Houses of Congress, and still more emphatically the executive government, to an immediate readiness for the performance of their respective duties.

By the Constitution of the United States the President is constituted commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and of the militia of the several States when called into the actual service of the United States. The Constitution declares also that he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and that he shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union.

Congress has power by the Constitution to provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, and suitable and appropriate acts of Congress have been passed as well for providing for calling forth the militia as for placing other suitable and efficient means in the hands of the President to enable him to discharge the constitutional functions of his office.

The second section of the act of Feb. 28, 1795, declares that whenever the laws of the United States shall be opposed or their execution obstructed in any State by combinations too powerful to be suppressed by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings or the power vested in marshals, the President may call forth the militia, as far as may be necessary, to suppress such combinations and to cause the laws to be duly executed.

By the act of March 3, 1807, it is provided that in all cases of obstruction to the laws, either of the United States or any individual State or Territory, where it is lawful for the President to call forth the militia for the purpose of causing the laws to be duly executed, it shall be lawful for him to employ for the same purposes such part of the land or naval force of the United States as shall be judged necessary.

These several enactments are now in full force, so that if the laws of the United States are opposed or obstructed in any State or Territory by combinations too powerful to be suppressed by the judicial or civil authorities it becomes a case in which it is the duty of the President either to call out the militia or to employ the military and naval force of the United States, or to do both if in his judgment the exigency of the occasion shall so require, for the purpose of suppressing such combinations. The constitutional duty of the President is plain and peremptory, and the authority vested in him by law for its performance clear and ample.

Texas is a State, authorized to maintain her own laws so far as they are not repugnant to the Constitution, laws, and treaties of the United States; to suppress insurrections against her authority, and to punish those who may commit treason against the State according to the forms provided by her constitution and her own laws.

But all this power is local and confined entirely within the limits of Texas her-

self. She can possibly confer no authority which can be lawfully exercised beyond her own boundaries.

All this is plain, and hardly needs argument or elucidation. If Texas militia, therefore, march into any one of the other States or into any Territory of the United States, there to execute or enforce any law of Texas, they become at that moment trespassers; they are no longer under the protection of any lawful authority; and are to be regarded merely as intruders; and if within such State or Territory they obstruct any law of the United States, either by power of arms or mere power of numbers, constituting such a combination as is too powerful to be suppressed by the civil authority, the President of the United States has no option left to him, but is bound to obey the solemn injunction of the Constitution and exercise the high powers vested in him by that instrument and by the acts of Congress.

Or if any civil posse, armed or unarmed, enter into any Territory of the United States, under the protection of the laws thereof, with intent to seize individuals, to be carried elsewhere for trial for alleged offences, and this posse be too powerful to be resisted by the local civil authorities, such seizure or attempt to seize is to be prevented or resisted by the authority of the United States.

The grave and important question now arises whether there be in the Territory of New Mexico any existing law of the United States opposition to which or the obstruction of which would constitute a case calling for the interposition of the authority vested in the President.

The Constitution of the United States declares that:

"This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land."

If, therefore, New Mexico be a Territory of the United States, and if any treaty stipulation be in force therein, such treaty stipulation is the supreme law of the land, and is to be maintained and upheld accordingly.

In the letter to the governor of Texas my reasons are given for believing that New Mexico is now a Territory of the United States, with the same extent and the same boundaries which belonged to it while in the actual possession of the republic of Mexico, and before the late war. In the early part of that war both California and New Mexico were conquered by the arms of the United States, and were in the military possession of the United States at the date of the treaty of peace.

By that treaty the title by conquest was confirmed and these territories, provinces, or departments separated from Mexico forever; and by the same treaty certain important rights and securities were solemnly guaranteed to the inhabitants residing therein.

By the fifth article of the treaty it is declared that—

"The boundary-line between the two republics shall commence in the Gulf of Mexico 3 leagues from land, opposite the mouth of the Rio Grande, otherwise called Rio Bravo del Norte, or opposite the mouth of its deepest branch if it should have more than one branch emptying directly into the sea; from thence up the middle of that river, following the deepest channel where it has more than one, to the point where it strikes the southern boundary of New Mexico, thence westwardly along the whole southern boundary of New Mexico (which runs north of the town called Paso) to its western termination; thence northward along the western line of New Mexico until it intersects the first branch of the River Gila (or, if it should not intersect any branch of that river, then to the point on the said line nearest to such branch, and thence in a direct line to the same), thence down the middle of the said branch and of the said river until it empties into the Rio Colorado; thence across the Rio Colorado; following the division line between Upper and Lower California, to the Pacific Ocean."

The eighth article of the treaty is in the following terms:

"Mexicans now established in territories previously belonging to Mexico, and which remain for the future within the limits of the United States as defined by the present treaty, shall be free to continue where they now reside or to remove at any

time to the Mexican republic, retaining the property which they possess in the said territories, or disposing thereof and removing the proceeds wherever they please, without their being subjected on this account to any contribution, tax, or charge whatever.

"Those who shall prefer to remain in the said territories may either retain the title and rights of Mexican citizens or acquire those of citizens of the United States; but they shall be under the obligation to make their election within one year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty; and those who shall remain in the said territories after the expiration of that year without having declared their intention to retain the character of Mexicans shall be considered to have elected to become citizens of the United States.

"In the said territories property of every kind now belonging to Mexicans not established there shall be inviolably respected. The present owners, the heirs of these, and all Mexicans who may hereafter acquire said property by contract shall enjoy with respect to it guarantees equally ample as if the same belonged to citizens of the United States."

The ninth article of the treaty is in these words:

"The Mexicans who, in the territories aforesaid, shall not preserve the character of citizens of the Mexican republic, conformably with what is stipulated in the preceding article, shall be incorporated into the Union of the United States and be admitted at the proper time (to be judged of by the Congress of the United States) to the enjoyment of all the rights of citizens of the United States according to the principles of the Constitution, and in the mean time shall be maintained and protected in the free enjoyment of their liberty and property, and secured in the free exercise of their religion without restriction."

It is plain, therefore, on the face of these treaty stipulations that all Mexicans established in territories north or east of the line of demarcation already mentioned come within the protection of the ninth article, and that the treaty, being a part of the supreme law of the land, does extend over all such Mexicans, and assures to them perfect security in the free enjoyment of their liberty and property, as well as in the free exercise of their religion; and this supreme law of the land, being thus in actual force over this territory, is to be maintained until it shall be displaced or superseded by other legal provisions; and if it be obstructed or resisted by combinations too powerful to be suppressed by the civil authority, the case is one which comes within the provisions of law, and which obliges the President to enforce those provisions. Neither the Constitution nor the laws nor my duty nor my oath of office leave me any alternative or any choice in my mode of action.

The executive government of the United States has no power or authority to determine what was the true line of boundary between Mexico and the United States before the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, nor has it any such power now, since the question has become a question between the State of Texas and the United States. So far as this boundary is doubtful, that doubt can only be removed by some act of Congress, to which the assent of the State of Texas may be necessary, or by some appropriate mode of legal adjudication; but in the mean time, if disturbances or collisions arise or should be threatened, it is absolutely incumbent on the executive government, however painful the duty, to take care that the laws be faithfully maintained; and he can regard only the actual state of things as it existed at the date of the treaty, and is bound to protect all inhabitants who were then established and who now remain north and east of the line of demarcation in the full enjoyment of their liberty and property, according to the provisions of the ninth article of the treaty. In other words, all must be now regarded as New Mexico which was possessed and occupied as New Mexico by citizens of Mexico at the date of the treaty until a definite line of boundary shall be established by competent authority.

This assertion of duty to protect the people of New Mexico from threatened violence, or from seizure to be carried into Texas for trial for alleged offences against Texan laws, does not at all include any claim of power on the part of the executive to establish any civil or military gov-

ernment within that Territory. *That power* belongs exclusively to the legislative department, and Congress is the sole judge of the time and manner of creating or authorizing any such government.

The duty of the executive extends only to the execution of laws and the maintenance of treaties already in force, and the protection of all the people of the United States in the enjoyment of the rights which those treaties and laws guarantee.

It is exceedingly desirable that no occasion should arise for the exercise of the powers thus vested in the President by the Constitution and the laws. With whatever mildness those powers might be executed, or however clear the case of necessity, yet consequences might, nevertheless, follow of which no human sagacity can foresee either the evils or the end.

Having thus laid before Congress the communication of his excellency the governor of Texas and the answer thereto, and having made such observations as I have thought the occasion called for respecting constitutional obligations which may arise in the further progress of things and may devolve on me to be performed, I hope I shall not be regarded as stepping aside from the line of my duty, notwithstanding that I am aware that the subject is now before both Houses, if I express my deep and earnest conviction of the importance of an immediate decision or arrangement or settlement of the question of boundary between Texas and the Territory of New Mexico. All considerations of justice, general expediency, and domestic tranquillity call for this. It seems to be in its character and by position the first, or one of the first, of the questions growing out of the acquisition of California and New Mexico, and now requiring decision.

No government can be established for New Mexico, either State or Territorial, until it shall be first ascertained what New Mexico is, and what are her limits and boundaries. These cannot be fixed or known till the line of division between her and Texas shall be ascertained and established; and numerous and weighty reasons conspire, in my judgment, to show that this divisional line should be established by Congress with the assent of the government of Texas. In the first place, this seems by far the most prompt mode of proceeding by which the end can be accomplished. If judicial proceedings were resorted to, such proceedings would necessarily be slow, and years would pass by, in all probability, before the controversy could be ended. So great a delay in this case is to be avoided if possible. Such delay would be every way inconvenient, and might be the occasion of disturbances and collisions. For the same reason I would, with the utmost deference to the wisdom of Congress, express a doubt of the expediency of the appointment of commissioners, and of an examination, estimate, and an award of indemnity to be made by them. This would be but a species of arbitration, which might last as long as a suit at law.

So far as I am able to comprehend the case, the general facts are now all known, and Congress is as capable of deciding on it justly and properly now as it probably would be after the report of the commissioners. If the claim of title on the part of Texas appears to Congress to be well founded in whole or in part, it is in the competency of Congress to offer her an indemnity for the surrender of that claim. In a case like this, surrounded as it is by many cogent considerations, all calling for amicable adjustment and immediate settlement, the government of the United States would be justified, in my opinion, in allowing an indemnity to Texas, not unreasonable or extravagant, but fair, liberal, and awarded in a just spirit of accommodation.

I think no event would be hailed with more gratification by the people of the United States than the amicable adjustment of questions of difficulty which have now for a long time agitated the country and occupied, to the exclusion of other subjects, the time and attention of Congress.

Having thus freely communicated the results of my own reflections on the most advisable mode of adjusting the boundary question, I shall nevertheless cheerfully acquiesce in any other mode which the wisdom of Congress may devise. And in conclusion I repeat my conviction that every consideration of the public interest manifests the necessity of a provision by Congress for the settlement of this boundary question before the present session be brought to a close. The settlement of

other questions connected with the same subject within the same period is greatly to be desired, but the adjustment of this appears to me to be in the highest degree important. In the train of such an adjustment we may well hope that there will follow a return of harmony and good will, an increased attachment to the Union, and the general satisfaction of the country.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

Filson, JOHN, pioneer; born in Chester county, Pa., in 1747; purchased a one-third interest in the site of Cincinnati, which he called Losantiville. While exploring the country in the neighborhood of Losantiville he disappeared and it is supposed was killed by hostile Indians, about 1788. He was the author of *The Discovery, Settlement, and Present State of Kentucky; A Topographical Description of the Western Territory of North America; Diary of a Journey from Philadelphia to Vincennes, Ind., in 1785,* etc.

Finances, UNITED STATES. Financial topics were uppermost in interest during the years immediately succeeding 1890. The demand for the free and unlimited coinage of silver increased in the Southern and Western portions of the country. Between 1891 and 1892 the expenditures increased and the receipts decreased. Part of the silver was coined, and the rest accumulated in the treasury vaults. The silver question, and, with it, the whole financial problem, was suddenly brought prominently to the front in 1893. On June 26 of that year the British government closed the Indian mints to the free coinage of silver. As this important silver market was thus barred, the effect was to accelerate the fall in the price of that metal. At this date the value of the silver dollar was about 60 cents, and it fell below that point. The ratio of gold to silver, which in 1873 was 15+, was in 1886 20, and in 1893 25½. The amount of gold in the country was greatly decreased during the same period. The gold reserve in the treasury, which had been above the $100,000,000 limit, fell in August, 1893, to $96,000,000; stood Sept. 30 at $93,000,000, and Jan. 13, 1894, had fallen to $74,000,000. Many business failures occurred during the summer. The iron trade was depressed, various cotton and woollen mills closed in New England and the Middle States, and stocks suffered. Within the first eight months of the year, 560 State and private banks and 155 national banks (mostly of small dimensions) failed. The great majority of these bank failures were in the region west of the Mississippi River. This section, especially the States intimately connected with the mining and smelting of silver, felt the "hard times" keenly. The general closing of silver-mines in Colorado was attended with much suffering, and considerable bitterness was displayed. At least 15,000 miners became idle, and many men out of work came eastward, in some cases taking forcible possession of freight-trains.

Meanwhile in the East in midsummer an extraordinary stringency of money was developed. At one time in New York the premium on $1,000 in small bills reached $25; many business establishments were hard pressed to meet the payments of their employees; checks and clearing-house certificates played for a short time a remarkable part. The premium on currency disappeared, however, in September, although money continued to be scarce. One of the features of the commercial trouble of 1893 was the number of large railroad systems forced into the hands of receivers. In this number were included the Erie; Reading; Northern Pacific; Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé; and New York and New England.

As the forced purchase of silver was generally recognized as one cause of the disturbances, attention was called to the repeal of the silver purchase act of 1890, and President Cleveland summoned a special session of the Fifty-third Congress to consider the matter. Congress assembled Aug. 7; on Aug. 28 the House passed the Wilson bill, which went to the Senate; in the form of the Voorhees repeal bill the measure passed the Senate by a vote of 43 to 32, Oct. 30; nearly all the "repealers" were from the East and North. On Nov. 1 it passed the House by a vote of 193 to 94, and was promptly signed by the President. After passing this act, which repealed the purchasing clause of what was known as the Sherman bill of 1890, Congress adjourned.

The actual condition of the national treasury on Jan. 12, 1894, was thus set

forth in a letter of Secretary Carlisle: Assets—Gold, $74,108,149; silver dollars and bullion, $8,092,287; fractional silver coin, $12,133,903; United States notes, $5,031,327; treasury notes of 1890, $2,476,000; national bank notes, $14,026,735; minor coin, $988,625; deposits in banks, $15,470,863; total cash assets, $132,327,889. Liabilities—Bank-note 5 per cent. fund, $7,198,219; outstanding checks and drafts, $5,653,917; disbursing officers' balances, $28,176,149; post-office department account, $3,897,741; undistributed assets of failed national banks, $1,927,727; District of Columbia account, $142,613; total agency account, $46,996,366; gold reserve, $74,108,149; net balance, $11,223,374. Total liabilities, $132,327,889. The average monthly deficiency in the last half of 1893 was shown to be about $7,000,000. The estimated falling-off in revenue with other causes swelled the expected deficiency to a formidable amount. To meet the rapid fall in the gold reserve, Secretary Carlisle, on Jan. 17, 1894, issued a circular, offering for public subscription an issue of $50,000,000 of bonds, "redeemable in coin at the pleasure of the government after ten years . . . and bearing interest . . . at the rate of 5 per cent." The minimum premium was fixed at 117.223, thus making the issue equivalent to a 3 per cent. bond. The Secretary issued the call by virtue of an act of 1875; but his authority was challenged by the House judiciary committee Jan. 26, 1894.

In spite of this issue of bonds the treasury reserve soon fell below the mark again, and on Nov. 13 of the same year a second issue of $50,000,000 worth of bonds was made. They were all given to a syndicate of bankers at a bid of 117.077. So rapid was the drain on the treasury, however, that on Feb. 8, 1895, the government signed a contract with the Belmont-Morgan syndicate of New York to provide for the treasury 3,500,000 ounces of standard gold coin, amounting to $62,315,000. Payment was made to the syndicate in 4 per cent. bonds. The syndicate was also pledged to help retain all the gold in the treasury. The business depression still continued, however, and on Jan. 6, 1896, the government advertised a sale of $100,000,000 in bonds. It was at first planned to sell the entire issue to the Belmont-Morgan syndicate, but the proposition caused such a popular outcry that the public was allowed to bid for the bonds, and the $100,000,000 was subscribed more than five times over. The treasury received over $6,000,000 more than if the sale had been made to the syndicate. This successful sale seemed to restore the confidence of the nation, and the gold reserve in the treasury soon passed the $100,000,000 limit.

In striking contrast with the special report of Secretary Carlisle in 1894 was the annual report of Secretary Gage for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1900. In comparing these reports it should be borne in mind that a period of remarkable prosperity set in soon after the Presidential election in 1896; that the war with Spain placed on the national treasury an unexpected burden; that the revenues of the government were increased by a special bill (1898) to meet the extraordinary disbursements; and that the foreign trade of the country advanced to an unprecedented volume. The main features of the treasury report for June 30, 1900, were as follows:

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES.

The revenues of the government from all sources for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1900, were:

Internal revenue	$295,327,926.76
Customs	233,164,871.16
Profits on coinage, bullion deposits, etc.	9,992,374.09
District of Columbia	4,008,722.27
Fees—consular, letters patent and land	3,291,716.68
Sales of public lands	2,836,882.98
Tax on national banks	1,998,554.00
Navy pension, navy hospital, clothing, and deposit funds	1,621,558.52
Sales of Indian lands	1,384,663.49
Payment of interest by Pacific railways	1,173,466.43
Miscellaneous	997,375,68
Sales of government property	779,522.78
Customs fees, fines, penalties, etc	675,706.95
Immigrant fund	537,404.81
Deposits for surveying public lands	273,247.19
Sales of ordnance material.	257,265.56
Soldiers' Home, permanent fund	247,926.62
Tax on seal skins and rent of seal islands	225,676.47

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES. — *Continued.*

License fees, Territory of Alaska	$157,234.94
Trust funds, Department of State	152,794.56
Depredations on public lands	76,307.58
Spanish indemnity	57,000.00
Sales of lands and buildings	3,842,737.68
Part payment Central Pacific Railroad indebtedness.	3,338,016.49
Dividend received for account of Kansas Pacific Railway	821,897.70
Postal service	102,354,579.29
Total receipts	$669,595,431.18

The expenditures for the same period were:

Civil establishment, including foreign intercourse, public buildings, collecting the revenues, District of Columbia, and other miscellaneous expenses	$98,542,411.37
Military establishment, including rivers and harbors, forts, arsenals, seacoast defences, and expenses of the war with Spain and in the Philippines	134,774,767.78
Naval establishment, including construction of new vessels, machinery, armament, equipment, improvement at navy-yards, and expenses of the war with Spain and in the Philippines	55,953,077.72
Indian service	10,175,106.76
Pensions	140,877,316.02
Interest on the public debt	40,160,333.27
Deficiency in postal revenues.	7,230,778.79
Postal service	102,354,579.29
Total expenditure	$590,068,371.00
Showing a surplus of	$79,527,060.18

Other receipts of the Treasury, including amounts received from the Pacific railways from subscription to the 3 per cent. bonds authorized in June, 1898, and other bonds, were $115,410. The total amount of securities redeemed under the operations of the sinking fund were $56,544,556. The most important items in the redemptions were the bonds purchased to the amount of $19,300,650, and the premium in converted bonds amounting in all to $30,773,552. Total receipts for the fiscal year exceeded those of the preceding year by $58,613,426, while expenditures showed a decrease of $117,358,388.

The coinage executed during the fiscal year was:

Gold	$107,937,110.00
Silver dollars	18,244,984.00
Subsidiary silver	12,876,849.15
Minor	2,243,017.21
Total	$141,301,960.36

The revenues of the government for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1901, were thus estimated upon the basis of existing laws:

Customs	$245,000,000.00
Internal revenue	300,000,000.00
Miscellaneous sources	35,000,000.00
Postal service	107,773,253.92
Total estimated revenues.	$687,773,253.92

The expenditures for the same period were estimated as follows:

Civil establishment	$115,000,000.00
Military establishment	140,000,000.00
Naval establishment	60,000,000.00
Indian service	11,000,000.00
Pensions	142,000,000.00
Interest on the public debt	32,000,000.00
Postal service	107,773,253.92
Total estimated expenditures	$607,773,253.92
Or a surplus of	$80,000,000.00

Secretary Gage further estimated that, upon the basis of existing laws, the revenues of the government for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1902, would be:

From customs	$225,000,000.00
From internal revenue	310,000,000.00
From miscellaneous sources.	35,000,000.00
From postal service	116,633,042.00
Total estimated revenues.	$716,633,042.00

The estimates of appropriations required for the same period, as submitted by the several executive departments and offices, were $690,374,804.24, showing an estimated surplus of $26,258,237.76.

The tables on the three following pages were prepared in the office of the Secretary of the Treasury. They show the receipts of the government for the years indicated and the sources thereof, and also the expenditures during the years indicated, together with the objects therefor. In the first table the appropriations for the Post-office Department, Panama Canal, and public debt disbursements are omitted, and in the third table it is to be noted in connection with the public debt disbursements that the issues of certificates and notes not affecting the cash and general fund are excluded from the public debt figures in this statement.

For further details of national finances see BANKS, NATIONAL; CIRCULATION; COMMERCE; CURRENCY; DEBT, NATIONAL.

ANNUAL APPROPRIATIONS MADE BY CONGRESS FOR EACH YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1907 TO 1912, BY CLASSIFICATION OF EXPENDITURES, OMITTING THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT, PANAMA CANAL, AND PUBLIC-DEBT DISBURSEMENTS.

[Prepared in the office of the Secretary of the Treasury.]

Appropriated—	59th Congress. 1907.	59th Congress. 1908.	60th Congress. 1909.	60th Congress. 1910.	61st Congress. 1911.	61st Congress. 1912.
To supply deficiencies for the service of the various branches of the government	$28,165,777.03	$10,509,311.42	$42,662,723.93	$18,913,555.88	$23,045,612.11	$10,028,526.84
For legislative, executive, and judicial expenses of the government	29,684,919.30	32,126,333.80	32,832,913.50	32,007,049.00	34,158,767.00	35,378,149.85
For sundry civil expenses of the government	80,789,470.28	103,046,481.30	94,115,143.23	117,842,109.36	106,015,198.82	135,241,935.34
For support of the army	71,817,165.08	78,634,582.75	95,382,247.61	101,195,883.34	95,440,567.55	93,374,755.97
For the naval service	102,071,670.27	98,958,507.50	122,662,485.47	136,935,199.05	131,410,568.30	126,405,509.24
For the Indian service	9,260,599.98	10,123,188.05	9,253,347.87	11,854,982.48	9,266,528.00	8,842,136.37
For rivers and harbors	17,254,050.04	43,310,813.00	18,092,945.00	29,190,264.00	49,380,541.50	30,883,419.00
For forts and fortifications	5,053,993.00	6,898,011.00	9,316,745.00	8,170,111.00	5,617,200.00	5,473,707.00
For support of Military Academy	1,664,707.67	1,929,703.42	845,634.87	2,531,521.33	1,856,249.87	1,163,424.07
For service of Post-office Department	Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.
For invalid and other pensions, includ. deficiencies	140,245,500.00	146,143,000.00	163,053,000.00	160,908,000.00	155,758,000.00	153,682,000.00
For consular and diplomatic service	3,091,094.17	3,092,333.72	3,538,852.72	3,613,861.67	4,116,081.41	3,988,516.41
For service of Department of Agriculture	9,930,440.00	9,447,290.00	11,672,106.00	12,995,036.00	13,487,636.00	16,900,016.00
For expenses of the District of Columbia	10,232,102.16	10,440,598.63	10,001,888.85	10,699,531.49	10,608,045.99	12,056,786.50
For reclamation fund	.....	.....	.....	.....	20,020,000.00	.....
For reliefs and miscellaneous	40,172,757.57	1,079,289.19	14,086,212.78	1,334,571.66	3,544,798.29	1,130,678.81
Total	$549,434,246.55	$555,739,446.78	$627,516,246.83	$648,191,676.26	$663,725,794.84	$634,549,561.40

RECEIPTS AND THEIR SOURCES, YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1903, TO 1910.

Source.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.
Customs revenue...	$284,479,582	$261,274,565	$261,798,857	$300,251,878	$332,233,363	$286,113,130	$300,711,934	$333,683,445
Internal revenue...	230,810,124	232,904,119	234,095,741	249,150,213	269,666,773	251,711,127	246,212,644	289,933,519
Miscellaneous (net)	45,106,969	45,538,230	48,712,161	45,315,851	61,225,524	63,236,466	56,664,912	51,894,751
Profits on coinage								
Sales of public lands.								
Tax on national banks.								
Forest reserve fund.								
Immigrant fund.								
Tax on seal skins.								
Sales of ordnance material.								
Sales of condemned naval vessels.								
Consular fees.								
Patent fees.								
Etc.								
Ordinary receipts	$560,396,675	$539,716,914	$544,606,759	$594,717,942	$663,125,660	$601,060,723	$603,589,490	$675,511,715
Panama Canal receipts	.....	.....	.....	.....	31,210,818	25,367,769	30,731,008	.....
Public-debt receipts	25,757,023	26,868,141	22,560,678	35,665,046	31,991,754	79,769,637	45,624,240	31,674,292
Total receipts, exclusive of postal	$586,153,698	$566,585,055	$567,167,437	$630,392,988	$726,328,232	$706,198,129	$679,944,738	$707,186,007
Postal revenues....	134,224,443	143,582,624	152,826,585	167,932,783	183,585,006	191,478,663	203,562,383	224,128,658
Total receipts, including postal.	$720,378,141	$710,167,679	$719,994,021	$798,315,771	$909,913,238	$897,676,792	$883,507,121	$931,314,665

DISBURSEMENTS, YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1904 TO 1910.

Object.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.
Legislative	$11,791,483	$11,844,032	$11,239,772	$11,695,867	$13,723,103	$13,678,999	$13,616,496
Executive:							
Executive, proper	$299,986	$306,437	$378,781	$387,395	$404,524	$444,107	$520,208
State	4,374,503	2,813,395	2,539,250	3,677,361	3,745,563	3,880,331	4,909,558
Treasury	84,276,538	77,709,873	75,753,847	78,214,273	78,223,025	83,511,031	87,425,755
War	117,525,168	124,554,320	120,438,068	124,808,480	139,926,961	163,344,213	158,172,957
Navy	103,515,250	118,245,572	111,166,784	97,866,829	118,780,233	116,315,524	123,974,208
Interior	167,016,094	171,777,844	172,911,676	180,551,144	193,947,636	202,294,380	201,189,691
Post-office	8,654,600	17,284,522	15,022,918	10,097,772	15,291,580	21,589,595	10,117,907
Agriculture	5,614,407	6,537,464	7,643,688	10,482,193	13,460,764	16,282,468	16,976,022
Commerce and Labor	10,584,583	10,894,153	10,530,959	11,023,925	14,850,229	14,301,470	19,221,704
Justice	635,140	688,025	698,949	829,562	861,330	973,793	1,010,454
Ind. bureaus and offices	1,002,369	1,296,350	1,626,266	2,013,039	7,404,640	2,766,570	2,323,799
District of Columbia	9,392,025	11,678,356	11,487,250	11,370,802	12,184,505	14,776,542	11,650,497
Total Executive	$512,890,663	$543,786,311	$530,198,437	$531,322,776	$599,080,988	$640,480,022	$637,492,760
Judicial	$7,555,675	$7,729,751	$7,967,217	$8,686,485	$8,298,300	$8,165,422	$8,596,135
Ordinary disbursements	$532,237,821	$563,360,094	$549,405,425	$551,705.129	$621,102,391	$662,324,445	$659,705,391
Panama Canal disbursements	50,164,500	3,918,820	19,379,374	27,198.619	38,093,929	31,419,442	33,911,673
Public-debt disbursements *	50,817,280	26,462,599	26,386,326	56,052,393	73,891,906	104,996,770	33,049,696
Total, exclusive of postal paid from postal revenues	$633,219,601	$593,741,513	$595,171,125	$634,956,141	$733,088,226	$798,740,657	$726,666,760
Postal revenues	143,582,624	152,826,585	167,932,783	183,585,006	191,478,663	203,562,383	224,128,658
Total disbursements, including postal	$776,802,225	$746,568,098	$763,103,908	$818,541,147	$924,566,889	$1,002,303,040	$950,795,418

* Issues of certificates and notes not affecting the cash in general fund are excluded from the public-debt figures in this statement.

Fine Arts, THE. In 1750 Horace Walpole wrote, "As our disputes and politics have traveled to America, it is probable that poetry and painting, too, will revive amidst those extensive tracts, as they increase in opulence and empire, and where the stores of nature are so various, so magnificent, and so new." That was written fourteen years before the Declaration of Independence. Little could he comprehend the value of freedom, such the Americans were then about to struggle for, in the development of every department of the fine arts, of which Dean Berkeley had a prophetic glimpse when he wrote:

"There shall be sung another Golden Age,
The rise of empires and of arts,
The good and great, inspiring epic rage,
The wisest heads and noblest hearts."

The first painter who found his way to America professionally was John Watson, a Scotchman, who was born in 1685. He began the practice of his art at Perth Amboy, then the capital of New Jersey, in 1715, where he purchased land and built houses. He died at an old age. JOHN SMYBERT (*q. v.*) came with Dean Berkeley in 1728, and began portrait-painting in Newport, R. I. Nathan Smybert, "an amiable youth," began the practice of painting, but died young in 1757. During John Smybert's time there were Blackburn in Boston and Williams of Philadelphia who painted portraits These were all Englishmen. The first American painter was BENJAMIN WEST (*q. v.*), who spent a greater part of his life in England, where he attained to a high reputation. JOHN SINGLETON COPLEY (*q. v.*) was his contemporary, and painted portraits as early as 1760. At the same time Woollaston had established himself, and painted the portraits of Mrs. Custis (afterwards Mrs. Washington) and her husband, about 1756. He was an Englishman. At the period of the Revolution, Charles Wilson Peale, who had learned the art from Hesselius, a portrait-painter, was the only American, if we except young Trumbull, who might be called a good artist, for Copley had gone to England. So it was that the fine art of painting was introduced.

At that time there were no professional architects in the country. Plans for churches, other than the ordinary buildings, were procured from abroad. The "meeting-house" of that day was only the shell of a dwelling-house, with very little decoration, and with a small bell-tower rising a few feet above the roof. The dwelling-houses were extremely plain, generally. When a fine one was to be built, plans, and even materials sometimes, were procured from Europe. But from the beginning of the nineteenth century there have been many highly accomplished American architects, who have carried the people through the various styles—the Greek, Gothic, and Mansard—of architecture.

Sculpture waited long for a practitioner in America, and very little of the sculptor's art was known in this country. Now the increasing demand for statuary promises a brilliant future for the sculptor. Among the earlier of American sculptors were HORATIO GREENOUGH (*q. v.*) and HIRAM POWERS (*q. v.*). They may be said to have introduced the art. Greenough was the first American who produced a marble group, *The Chanting Cherubs*, for J. Fenimore Cooper. For many years there was a prudish feeling that made nude figures an abomination. So sensitive were the ladies of Philadelphia concerning the antique figures displayed at the exhibitions of the Academy of Fine Arts, that one day in the week was set apart for the visits of the gentler sex. The multiplication of art schools, art museums, and art exhibitions has quite generally dissipated prudery. Crawford gave to American sculpture a fame that widened that of Greenough and Powers.

Music has had a habitation here, first in the form of psalm-singing, from the earliest settlements. Now its excellent professors and practitioners are legion in number. The graphic art in our country is only a little more than a century old. Nathaniel Hurd, of Boston, engraved on copper portraits and caricatures as early as 1762. Paul Revere, also, engraved at the period of the Revolution. He engraved the plates for the Continental money. Amos Doolittle was one of the earliest of our better engravers on copper. DR. ALEXANDER ANDERSON (*q. v.*) was the first man who engraved on wood in this country—an art now brought to the high-

est perfection here. The earliest and best engraver on steel was ASHER B. DURAND (*q. v.*), who became one of the first line-engravers in the world, but abandoned the profession for the art of painting. The art of lithography was introduced into the United States in 1821, by Messrs. Burnet and Doolittle, and steadily gained favor as a cheap method of producing pictures. It is now extensively employed in producing chromo-lithographic pictures. Photography, the child of the daguerreotype, was first produced in England by Mr. Talbot, and was introduced here chiefly by the labors in science of Dr. J. W. Draper, of New York. Indeed, the discovery of the process of making pictures by employing sunlight as the artist was the result of the previous experiments and writings concerning the chemical action of light by Dr. Draper. The American Academy of Fine Arts was incorporated in 1808, and the first public exhibition of works of art followed. At the suggestion of PROF. SAMUEL F. B. MORSE (*q. v.*) younger painters associated, and in 1826 organized the National Academy of the Arts of Design in the United States.

In 1622 Edward Palmer, a native of Gloucestershire, England, obtained from the London Company a grant of land in Virginia, and from the Plymouth Company a tract in New England. Mr. Palmer died late in 1624. Just before his death he made provision in his will for the establishment, conditionally, of a "university" in Virginia, with which was to be connected a school of fine arts. His will, dated Nov. 22 (O. S.), 1624, provided for the descent of his lands in Virginia and New England to his sons and nephews, saying: "But if all issue fails, then all said land is to remain for the founding and maintenance of a university and such schools in Virginia as shall there be erected, and the university shall be called 'Academia Virginiensis Oxoniensis.'" After providing for scholarships in the university for the male descendants of his grandfather, Mr. Palmer's will provided "that the scholars of the said university, for the avoiding of idleness, shall have two painters, the one for oil-colors and the other for water-colors, who shall be admitted fellows of the same college, to the end and intent that the said scholars shall or may learn the art of painting; and further, my will and mind is that two grinders, the one for oil-colors and the other for water-colors, and also oil and gum-waters, shall be furnished, from time to time, at the cost and charges of the said college." Mr Palmer purchased a picturesque island in the Susquehanna, opposite Havre de Grace, Md., which was originally called Palmer's Island. There he expected the university and school of fine arts to be established. The family of Edward Palmer had been identified with Warwickshire from the time of William the Conqueror. During the later years of his life Palmer resided in London, and his collection of rarities and ancient Greek and Roman coins was well known among literary men. This school of fine arts in America was projected years before Dean Berkeley projected his college in the Bermudas (see BERKELEY, GEORGE) and brought JOHN SMYBERT (*q. v.*) with him to cultivate art therein.

In 1791 Archibald Robertson, a Scotchman and a portrait-painter, established a seminary in the city of New York which he called the Columbian Academy of Painting. He succeeded well, and his pupils did honor to the institution. In 1801 Robert R. Livingston, then American minister in France, proposed the establishment of an academy of fine arts in New York. He wrote to friends, suggesting the raising of funds by subscription for the purpose of purchasing copies of antique statuary and paintings for the instruction of young artists. An association for the purpose was formed late in 1802, but it was not incorporated until 1808. Meanwhile Mr. Livingston had obtained fine plaster copies of ancient statues and sent them over. In the board of managers were distinguished citizens, but there was only one artist—Colonel Trumbull. It bore the corporate title of Academy of Fine Arts. It had a feeble existence, though it numbered among its honorary members King George IV. of England, and the Emperor Napoleon, who contributed liberally to its establishment. De Witt Clinton was its president in 1816, when its first public exhibition was opened. In 1805 seventy gentlemen, mostly lawyers, met in Independence Hall,

Philadelphia, for the purpose of considering the subject of founding an academy of fine arts in that city. They formed an association for the purpose, and established the Philadelphia Academy of Fine Arts, with George Clymer as president. Their first exhibition was held in 1806, when more than fifty casts of antique statues in the Louvre were displayed, and two paintings by Benjamin West. By purchases and gifts the collection of the academy was unsurpassed in this country in 1845, when the building and most of its contents were destroyed by fire. The association now has a superb building on Broad Street, which was first opened to the public in April, 1876. Unwise management and alleged injustice to the younger artists who were studying in the New York Academy caused great dissatisfaction, and in the autumn of 1825 they held a meeting and organized a Society for Improvement in Drawing. This movement was made at the instigation of Samuel F. B. Morse, who was made president of the association. At a meeting of the association in January, 1826, Mr. Morse submitted a plan for the formation of what was called a National Academy of Design in the United States. The proposition was adopted and the new academy was organized on Jan. 15, with Mr. Morse as president, and fourteen associate officers. The academy then founded flourished from the beginning, and is now one of the most cherished institutions of New York City.

Finger Prints, popular name of a recently developed and widely adapted system for detecting crime and identifying criminals; consists of an impression of the ball of a finger, or, preferably, of the thumb, on some plastic substance or inked surface, which is then carefully catalogued and filed for future use. M. Henry de Varigny of Paris, who has made a special study of the subject, states that the lines of the fingers, unlike those of the hands, never vary from the cradle to the grave. Almost from the moment the child is alive—even before birth—the lines have been formed on the fingers, and they will not be effaced till after death. The characteristic markings of the fingers are extremely tenacious, and show a wonderful resistance to accidents. The skin may be removed, the fingers may be burned by acid or by fire, but when the new epidermis has grown it will be found that the digital imprint is identical with the old. No two imprints are alike; even the finger prints of twins show as much divergence as the lines on two leaves taken from the same tree. The rôle played by finger impressions, especially in France, has been a very prominent one of late, and criminals whose various disguises and aliases have long enabled them to baffle the police know that once a record of their finger prints is in the hands of M. Bertillon they have little chance of escaping detection. No confusion is possible between the imprints of two persons. The system has been introduced into the United States, and has proved a great aid in establishing the identity of suspected criminals.

Finley, JAMES BRADLEY, clergyman;

RIFLES USED BY THE PRINCIPAL NATIONS.—(See article FIRE-ARMS.)

NATION.	Gun.	Weight.		Calibre.	No. of Rounds.
		Pounds.	Ounces.	Inch.	
Austria	Mannlicher	9	14	0.315	5
Belgium	Mauser	8	9	0.301	5
China	Lee	9	0	0.433	5
Denmark	Krag-Jorgensen	9	8	0.315	5
England	Lee-Metford	9	4	0.303	8
France	Lebel	9	4	0.315	8
Germany	Mannlicher	9	0	0.315	5
Italy	Parravicino Carcano	8	6	0.256	5
Japan	Murata	9	0	0.315	8
Portugal	Kropatschek	10	4	0.315	8
Russia	Mouzin	8	13	0.30	5
Spain	Mauser	8	13	0.276	5
Sweden and Norway	Krag-Jorgensen	9	8	0.30	5
Switzerland	Schmidt	9	8	0.296	12
Turkey	Mauser	8	9	0.301	5
United States army	Krag-Jorgensen	9	8	0.30	5
" " navy	Lee	9	0	0.236	5

born in North Carolina, July 1, 1781; became a Methodist minister in 1809; was a missionary among the Wyandotte Indians in 1821–27. His publications include *History of the Wyandotte Mission; Sketches of Western Methodism; Personal Reminiscences Illustrative of Indian Life*, etc. He died in Cincinnati, O., Sept. 6, 1856.

Fire-arms, a term originally applied to cannon; afterwards to cannon requiring two men to carry it, and now to what are known as rifles and small arms. The right of bearing arms cannot be prohibited by Congress, but the States to which this restriction does not apply may forbid the carrying of "concealed weapons." The table upon preceding page gives details of the rifles used by the principal nations of the world in 1901.

Fire-brick. See BRICK.

Fire Eaters, a name applied in the North to Southern politicians who were extremists in their hostility to the North and to anti-slavery agitation.

Fires, GREAT. The following is a list of the most notable fires in the United States:

Theatre at Richmond, Va.; the governor and many leading citizens perished	Dec. 26,	1811
New York City, 600 warehouses, etc.; loss, $20,000,000	Dec. 16,	1835
Washington, D. C., destroying general post-office and patent-office, with 10,000 valuable models, drawings, etc.	Dec. 27,	1838
Charleston, S. C., 1,158 buildings, covering 145 acres	April 27,	1838
New York City, 46 buildings; loss, $10,000,000	Sept. 6,	1839
Pittsburg, Pa., 1,000 buildings; loss, about $6,000,000	April 10,	1845
New York City, 1,300 dwellings destroyed	June 28,	1845
New York City, 302 stores and dwellings, 4 lives, and $6,000,000 of property	July 19,	1845
Albany, N. Y., 600 buildings, besides steamboats, piers, etc.; 24 acres burned over; loss, $3,000,000	Sept. 9,	1848
St. Louis, Mo., 15 blocks of houses and 23 steamboats; loss estimated at $3,000,000.	May 17,	1849
San Francisco, Cal., nearly 2,500 buildings burned; loss about $3,500,000	May 3-5,	1851
San Francisco, Cal., 500 buildings; loss, $3,000,000	June 22,	1851
Congressional Library, Washington, D. C., 35,000 volumes.	Dec. 24,	1851
Syracuse, N. Y., 12 acres of ground burned over; loss, $1,000,000	Nov. 8,	1856
New York Crystal Palace destroyed	Oct. 5,	1858
Portland, Me., nearly destroyed; 10,000 people homeless; loss, $15,000,000	July 4,	1866
Great Chicago fire, burning over about 3½ square miles, destroying 17,450 buildings, killing 200 persons; loss over $200,000,000	Oct. 8-9,	1871
Great fire in Boston; over 800 buildings burned; loss, $80,000,000	Nov. 9,	1872
Brooklyn (N. Y.) Theatre burned; 295 lives lost	Dec. 5,	1876
Jacksonville, Fla., 148 blocks burned over; loss, $10,000,000	May 3,	1901
Paterson, N. J., 456 buildings destroyed; loss, $8,000,000.	Feb. 9,	1902
Chicago, Ill., Iroquois Theatre; 573 lives lost	Dec. 30,	1903
Baltimore, Md., area of 12 by 9 city blocks in business section burned over; insurance loss, $30,500,000	Feb. 7-8,	1904
New York, steamboat *General Slocum*, bearing Sunday-school excursion, burned; 958 lives lost	June 15,	1904
San Francisco, Cal., fire following earthquake; property loss, $350,000,000	April 18,	1906
Chelsea, Mass., general fire; loss, $6,000,000	April 12,	1908

Fire Protection in the United States. Fire is guarded against by the materials and methods of construction, and its consequences are lessened by the adoption of various appliances.

The material of the structure depends on its position with regard to the "fire limits." Practically all American cities (the practice is not followed in England) require that buildings in the more thickly settled parts must be constructed with special reference to the prevention of fire, and the sections where such requirements apply are said to be within the fire limits. In some cities only buildings absolutely fire-proof are permitted within these limits; in others the requirements are less exacting. Outside the fire limits much more freedom is allowed, frame buildings being usually permitted, though even these are commonly required to adopt various constructional devices that have been found to check the spread of flames. The fire limits are extended from time to time as the city grows; if these extensions bring frame buildings, for instance, inside the limits, these are not required to be removed or altered. If they are removed, however, any new building put in their place must conform to the new regulations. Buildings erected one hundred feet or more from all others are commonly excepted from the stricter requirements,

even if they are within the fire limits. In European cities no wooden buildings are allowed, and to this is ascribed the far lower annual loss from fire. The fire loss in the United States is about six times as great as that in Europe. In the last thirty years the loss of property by fires in the United States has been over $5,000,000,000. The insurance on this property was about $3,000,000,000.

Safety appliances are commonly required only in semi-public and public buildings. They consist of fire-escapes, broad stairways built separately from elevator-shafts, asbestos curtains (in theatres), doorways that open outward, and so on.

First Republic in America, 1718–69. See NEW ORLEANS.

Fiscal Bank of the United States, an institution chartered by act of Congress in 1841, but vetoed by President Tyler. An amended bill to meet the President's objections was also vetoed by him.

Fish, HAMILTON, statesman; son of Col. Nicholas Fish; born in New York

HAMILTON FISH.

City, Aug. 3, 1808; graduated at Columbia College in 1827; admitted to the bar in 1830, and was elected to Congress in 1842. In 1848 he was chosen governor of the State of New York, and in 1851 became a member of the United States Senate, acting with the Republican party after its formation in 1856. He was a firm supporter of the government during the Civil War, and in March, 1869, was

NICHOLAS FISH.

called to the cabinet of President Grant as Secretary of State, and remained in that post eight years, during which time he assisted materially in settling various disputes with Great Britain, of which the "*Alabama* claims" controversy was the most important. He was elected president-general of the Society of the Cincinnati, and for many years president of the New York Historical Society. He died in New York City, Sept. 7, 1893.

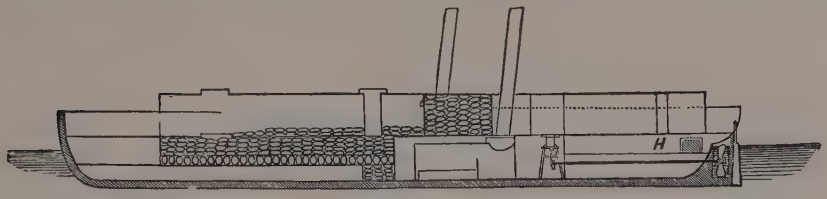
Fish, NICHOLAS, son of Hamilton Fish; born in New York City, Feb. 17, 1846; graduated at Columbia, 1867; U. S. minister to Belgium, 1882–85; 2d sergeant of Troop K in the 1st "Rough Riders"; killed in action at the battle of Sevilla, Cuba, June 26, 1898.

Fish, NICHOLAS, military officer; born in New York City, Aug. 28, 1758; studied law in the office of John Morin Scott, and was on his staff as aide in the spring of 1776. In June he was made brigadier-major, and in November major of the 2d New York Regiment. Major Fish was in the battles at Saratoga in 1777; was division inspector in 1778; and commanded a corps of light infantry in the battle of Monmouth. He served in Sullivan's ex-

pedition in 1779; under Lafayette, in Virginia, in 1781; and was at the surrender of Cornwallis, behaving gallantly during the siege. For many years after 1786, Fish, who had become lieutenant-colonel during the war, was adjutant-general of the State of New York, and was appointed supervisor of the United States revenue in 1794. In 1797 he became president of the New York State Cincinnati Society. He died in New York City, June 20, 1833.

Fish Dam Ford, S. C., BATTLE AT. An engagement between the Americans under General Sumter, and the British under General Wemyss, which was fought Nov. 12, 1780, and resulted in an American victory.

Fisher, FORT, an extensive earthwork on a point of sandy land between the Cape Fear River at its mouth and the ocean, the land-face occupying the whole width of the cape known as Federal Point, and armed with twenty heavy guns. All along the land-front (1864) was a stockade, and on the sea-front were the wrecks of several blockade-runners. It was late in 1864 when an attempt was made to close the port of Wilmington against English blockade-runners by capturing this fort and its dependencies. The expedition sent against the fort consisted of a powerful fleet under Admiral Porter and a land force under the immediate command of Gen. Godfrey Weitzel, of the Army of the James, accompanied by Gen. B. F. Butler as commander of that army. The whole force was gathered in Hampton Roads early in December. The troops consisted of General Ames's division of the 24th Army Corps and General Paine's division of the 25th (colored) Corps. The war-vessels were wooden ships, iron-clads, monitors, gunboats, and a powder-ship, destined to be blown up abreast of the fort with a hope of destructive effect. The powder-ship was the *Louisiana*, a propeller of 295 tons, having an iron hull. She was disguised as a blockade-runner. To have the powder above the water-line, a light deck was built for the purpose. On this was first placed a row of barrels of powder, standing on end, the upper one open. The remainder of the powder was in canvas bags, holding about 60 lbs. each, the whole being stored as represented in the engraving, in which the form of the vessel is also delineated. The whole weight of the powder was 215 tons. To communicate fire to the whole mass simultaneously, four separate threads of the Gomez fuse were woven through it, passing through each separate barrel and bag. At the stern and under the cabin was a heap of pine wood (H) and other combustibles, which were to be fired by the crew when they should leave the vessel. Three devices were used for communicating fire to the fuses, namely clock-work by which a percussion-cap was exploded; short spermaceti candles, which burned down and ignited the fuses at the same time; and a slow match that worked in time with the candles and the clock-work. The powder-vessel followed a blockade-runner and was anchored within 300 yards of the fort, according to the report of Commander Rhind. When the combustibles were fired and the apparatus for igniting the fuses were put in motion, the crew escaped in a swift little steamer employed for the purpose. The explosion took place in one hour and fifty-two minutes after the crew left. Notwithstanding the concussion of the explosion broke window-glasses in a vessel 12 miles distant, and the whole fleet, at that distance, felt it, and it was also felt on land at Beaufort and Newbern, from 60 to 80 miles distant, there was no perceptible effect upon the fort.



THE POWDER-SHIP.

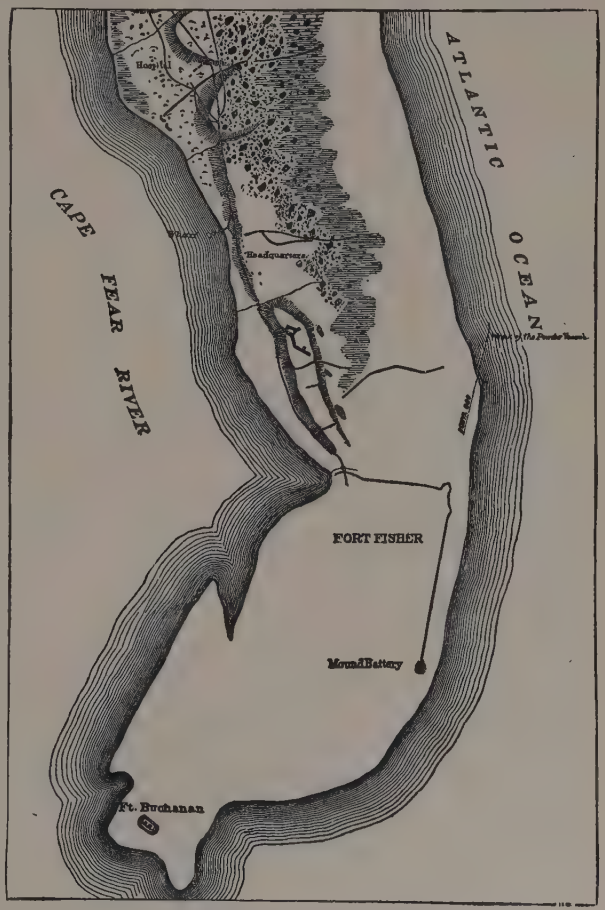
LANDING TROOPS AT FORT FISHER.

The appointed rendezvous of the expedition was 25 miles off the coast, facing Fort Fisher, so as not to be discovered by the Confederates until ready for action. There was a delay in the arrival of the war vessels, and the transports, coaled and watered for only ten days, were compelled to run up to Beaufort Harbor, N. C., for both, the fleet remaining off Fort Fisher. The transports returned on Christmas evening; the next morning the war vessels opened a bombardment, and at 3 P.M. the troops began their debarkation two miles above the fort. Only a part of the troops had been landed when the surf ran too high to permit more to go ashore. These marched down to attack the fort. Not a gun had been dismounted, and, as they were ready to rake the narrow peninsula on which the troops stood the moment the fleet should withhold its fire, prudence seemed to require the troops to withdraw. They did so, and were ordered to the James River to assist in the siege of PETERSBURG (*q. v.*), and the expedition of the land force against Fort Fisher was temporarily abandoned. It was resumed ten days afterwards. The war vessels had remained off Fort Fisher. The same troops, led by Weitzel, were placed under the command of GEN. ALFRED H. TERRY (*q. v.*), with the addition of a brigade of 1,400 men. Lieutenant-Colonel Comstock, of General Grant's staff, who accompanied the first expedition, was made the chief-engineer of this. The expedition left Hampton Roads, Jan. 6, 1865, and rendezvoused off Beaufort, N. C., where Porter was taking in supplies of coal and ammunition. They were all detained by rough weather, and did not appear off Fort Fisher until the evening of the 12th. The navy, taught by experience, took a position where it could better affect the land front of the fort than before. Under cover of the fire of the fleet, 8,000 troops were landed (Jan. 13). Terry wisely provided against an attack in the rear by casting up intrenchments across the peninsula and securing the free use of Masonboro Inlet, where, if necessary, troops and supplies might be landed in still water. On the evening of the 14th the light guns were landed, and before morning were in battery. Wisely planned by Terry, a grand assault was made on the morning of the 15th.

The war-ships opened the battle on the 14th. They kept up a bombardment all day, severely damaging the guns of the fort and silencing most of them. The

iron-clads fired slowly throughout the night, worrying and fatiguing the garrison, and at eight o'clock in the morning (Jan. 15) the entire naval force moved up to the attack. Meanwhile, 1,400 marines and 600 sailors, armed with revolvers, cutlasses, and carbines, were sent from the ships to aid the troops in the assault. Ames's division led in the assault, which began at half-past three P.M. The advance carried shovels and dug rifle-pits for shelter. A heavy storm of musketry and cannon opened upon the assailants. The fleet had effectually destroyed the palisades on the land front. Sailors and marines assailed the northeast bastion, and with this assault began the fierce struggle. The garrison used the huge traverses that had shielded their cannon as breastworks, and over these the combatants fired in each other's faces. The struggle was desperate and continued until nine o'clock, when the Nationals, fighting their way into the fort, gained full possession of it. All the other works near it were rendered untenable; and during the night (Jan. 16–17) the Confederates blew up Fort Caswell, on the right bank of Cape Fear River. They abandoned the other works and fled towards Wilmington. The National loss in this last attack was 681 men, of whom eighty-eight were killed. On the morning succeeding the victory, when the Nationals were pouring into the fort, its principal magazine exploded, killing 200 men and wounding 100. The fleet lost about 300 men during the action and by the explosion. The loss of the Confederates was reported by General Terry as over 2,000 prisoners, 169 pieces of artillery, over 2,000 small-arms, and commissary stores. The port of Wilmington was then effectively closed to blockade-runners.

Fisher, JOSHUA FRANCIS, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Feb. 17, 1807; graduated at Harvard College in 1825; studied law but never practised. His publications include *An Account of the Early Poets and Poetry of Pennsylvania; Private Life and Domestic Habits of William Penn; The Degradation of our Representative System and Its Reform; Reform of Municipal Elections;* and *Nomination of Candidates.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 21, 1873.



MAP OF FORT FISHER AND VICINITY.

Fisher, Redwood S., statistician; born in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1782. Edited a New York daily newspaper. He wrote *The Progress of the United States of America from the Earliest Periods, Geographical, Statistical, and Historical,* and was editor of a *Gazetteer of the United States.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 17, 1856.

Fisher, Sydney George, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 11, 1856; graduated at Trinity College in 1879; is the author of *The Making of Pennsylvania; The True Benjamin Franklin; The Evolution of the Constitution of the United States,* etc.

Fisher, Walter Lowrie, lawyer; born in Wheeling, W. Va., July 4, 1862; admitted to the bar and settled in Chicago to practise in 1888; became special assessment attorney and traction counsel of the city, vice-president of the National Municipal League, member of the Taft commission on railroad securities, and, March 7, 1911, Secretary of the Interior Department, succeeding Richard A. Ballinger (*q. v.*).

During the summer of 1911, Secretary Fisher visited Alaska and made a first-hand study of its conditions, necessities, and possibilities, and on his return, in an address before the American Mining Congress at Chicago, he summarized the results of his investigations and outlined the policy of the government in the matter of developing the great natural resources of the Territory. He declared that what Alaska needed more than all else was a trunk-line railroad from the ocean to the great interior valleys of the Yukon and the Tanana, opening up the country so that its future development might really be possible.

Considering the methods by which the extensive coal-fields should be developed, he stated that three courses had been suggested—*viz.* (1) the sale of the lands in fee; (2) their development under lease from the government; and (3) their operation by the government itself. He believed that the time had passed when the government should convey an unrestricted title to its coal-fields. The day is done in which the government should deliberately encourage the unrestricted private exploitation of the sources of power. To impose effective regulations upon these sources after they have passed to private individuals in fee is exceedingly difficult, even if not impossible.

On the other hand, direct government operation, including the mining and the selling of coal, involves such deep and far-reaching changes, both of policy and of administration, that there is no likelihood at the present time of its adoption to the exclusion of private operation. Unlike the government ownership of railroads, public coal-mining has never been held by the courts to be a function of government.

"I believe," he continued, "that the leasing system avoids the controversies and the difficulties of both extremes of public and of private ownership. It has been adopted with conspicuous success in the great mining communities of Australia and New Zealand. It is now the established law of the Yukon territory lying in Canada, just across the border line from Alaska. It is the system under which much of the privately owned coal-land of the United States is, in fact, to-day being developed. Under it we can insert as matters of contract and as conditions to which the lessee voluntarily consents those regulations and requirements which promote the public interest, the enforcement of some of which by mandatory law might be unconstitutional. By making the terms of our leases liberal we can make them even more attractive to capital than if we adopt the policy of an outright sale of the fee."

Referring to the two principal coal-fields, he said: "My visit to Alaska has led me to take a far greater interest in the future of the Matanuska coal-field, which is larger in extent, having an area of seventy-four square miles, or 47,360 acres, better in coal, better in physical condition, and freer from the complications of private claims than is true at Bering River. Against these advantages must be set off its greater distance from the sea, but this very distance connects it more intimately with the real problem of Alaskan development—that of adequate transportation from tide-water to the Yukon."

And again: "The Matanuska coal should be brought to Seward for the use of our naval coaling-station, and a mine

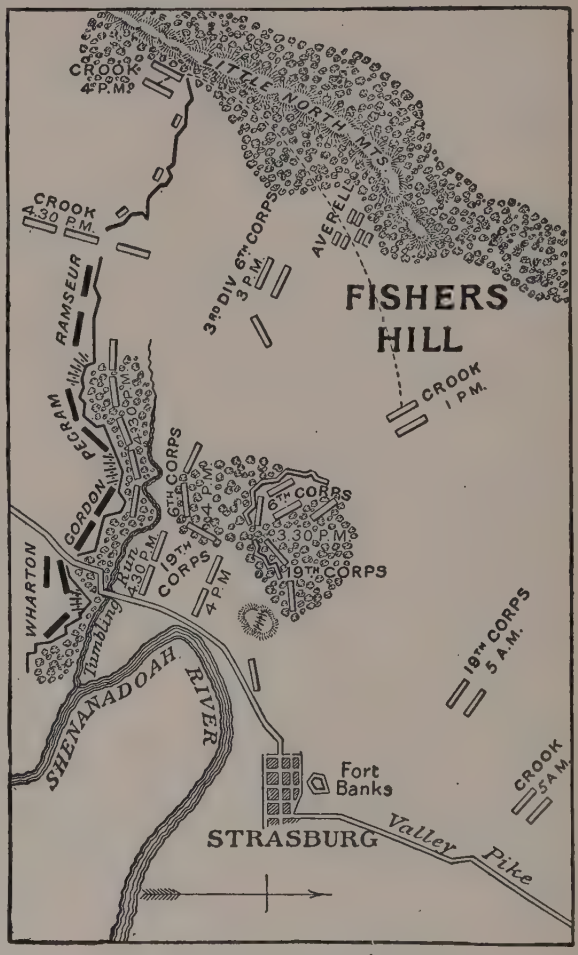
for that purpose can well be opened by the government where it may serve as an example for private mining and as a check upon government lessees. A sufficient portion of Alaska coal for the use of the navy should be reserved."

While in Alaska Secretary Fisher visited the much-criticised CONTROLLER BAY (*q. v.*) region. "If any foot of Controller Bay is more valuable than another, I do not know it," he said, speaking of outlets. "I am not violating any confidence when I say I believe Controller Bay is not the only possible harbor for the Bering River coal-fields, and is far from the best harbor."

SHERIDAN'S CAVALRY AT FISHER'S HILL.

Fisher's Hill. When driven from Winchester (see WINCHESTER, BATTLE OF) Early did not halt until he reached Fisher's Hill, beyond Strasburg, and 20 miles from the battle-field. It was strongly fortified, and was considered the most impregnable position in the valley. In his despatch to the Secretary of War (Sept. 19, 1864) Sheridan wrote: "We have just sent the enemy whirling through Winchester, and are after them to-morrow." He kept his word, and appeared in front of Fisher's Hill on the 22d. There Early was strongly intrenched. Sheridan sent Crook's corps to gain the left and rear of the position, and advanced to the attack of the left and front, with Wright's and Emory's corps. The assault began at four o'clock. The Confederate line was soon broken, and the entire force retreated in disorder up the valley, leaving behind them sixteen guns and over 1,000 men as prisoners. Early's army was saved from total destruction by the holding in check of Torbert's cavalry in the Luray Valley, and the detention of Wilson's cavalry, who fought at Front Royal the day before (Sept. 21). Sheridan chased Early to PORT REPUBLIC (*q. v.*), where he destroyed the Confederate train of seventy-five wagons. Thence his cavalry pursued as far as Staunton, where the remnant of Early's army sought and found shelter in the passes of the Blue Ridge. The Na-

tional cavalry destroyed a vast amount of supplies at Staunton, passed on to Waynesboro, and laid waste the Virginia Central Railway. Then Sheridan's whole army went down the Shenandoah Valley, making his march a track of desolation. He had been instructed to leave nothing "to invite the enemy to return." He placed his forces behind Cedar Creek, halfway between Strasburg and Middletown. Early's cavalry had rallied, under Rosser, and hung upon Sheridan's rear as he moved down the valley. Torbert and his cavalry turned upon them (Oct. 9) and charged the Confederates, who fled, leaving behind them 300 prisoners, a dozen guns, and nearly fifty wagons. They were chased 26 miles. Three days later Early attempted to surprise Sheridan, while resting at Fisher's Hill, when the Confederates were severely chastised.



PLAN OF ACTION AT FISHER'S HILL.

Fisheries, THE. The interruption of the fisheries formed one of the elements of the Revolutionary War and promised to be a marked consideration in any treaty of peace with Great Britain. Public law on the subject had not been settled. By the treaty of Utrecht France had agreed not to fish within 30 leagues of the coast of Nova Scotia; and by that of Paris not to fish within 15 leagues of Cape Breton. Vergennes, in a letter to Luzerne, the French minister at Philadelphia, had said: "The fishing on the high seas is as free as the sea itself, but the coast fisheries belong, of right, to the proprietors of the coast; therefore, the fisheries on the coasts of Newfoundland, of Nova Scotia, and of Canada belong exclusively to the English, and the Americans have no pretension whatever to share in them." But the Americans had almost alone enjoyed these fisheries, and deemed that they had gained a right to them by exclusive and immemorial usage. New England, at the beginning of the war, had, by act of Parliament, been debarred from fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, and they claimed that, in any treaty of peace, these fisheries ought to be considered as a perpetual joint property. Indeed, New England had planned, and furnished the forces for, the first reduction of Cape Breton, and had rendered conspicuous assistance in the acquisition of Nova Scotia and Canada by the English. The Congress, on March 23,

1779, in committee of the whole, agreed that the right to fish on the coasts of Nova Scotia, the banks of Newfoundland, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the straits of Labrador and Belle Isle should in no case be given up. In the final treaty of peace (1783) the fishery question was satisfactorily settled.

In the summer of 1845 some ill-feeling was engendered between the United States and Great Britain concerning the fisheries on the coasts of British America in the East. American fishermen were charged with a violation of the treaty of 1818 with Great Britain, which stipulated that they should not cast their lines or nets in the bays of the British provinces, except at the distance of three miles or more from shore. Now the British government claimed the right to draw a line from headland to headland of these bays, and to exclude the Americans from the waters within that line. It had been the common practice, without interference before, for American fishermen to catch cod within large bays, where they could easily carry on their vocation at a greater distance than three miles from the shore; now this new interpretation would exclude them from all bays. The British government sent an armed naval force to sustain this claim and American vessels were threatened with seizure if they did not comply. The government of the United States, regarding the assumption as illegal, sent two war steamers, *Princeton* and *Fulton*, to the coast of Nova Scotia to protect the rights of American fishermen. For a time war between the two governments seemed inevitable, but the dispute was amicably settled by mutual concessions in October, 1853. The United States government for several years has been liberally promoting the fishery industry, and several of the States, having large capital invested therein, have been rendering independent assistance, both the national and State governments maintaining large hatcheries. In its important work of stocking the public waters with food fish, and in furnishing food and game fish for private streams, lakes, and ponds, the Bureau of Fisheries has followed methods that have for their main object the largest results at the minimum cost, and it is noteworthy that in 1910 the volume of the fish-cultural work was much larger than ever before, while the available appropriation was not increased; the fish hatcheries numbered 35 and the sub-hatcheries, auxiliaries, and egg-collecting stations, 84; these were located in thirty-two States and Territories. The regular hatcheries are classified as follows with reference to the fish propagated: Marine species, three; river fish of the eastern seaboard, five; fish of the Pacific coast, five; fish of the Great Lakes, seven; and fish of interior waters, fifteen.

During the year 1910 the bureau distributed 3,233,392,572 fish and eggs for stocking public and private waters, an amount exceeding all previous records. Of this total 443,177,000 eggs and 7,425 fish were delivered to State fish commissions, and 600,000 eggs of salmon and trout were shipped to Argentina, Japan, and France. After nearly forty years' endeavor to establish the Chinook salmon of the Pacific coast in waters of the United States where it is not indigenous, conclusive evidence of success in one instance at least was developed in 1910, when the species was established in Lake Sunapee, N. H., where numerous specimens from three to five pounds in weight were taken by anglers. Encouraged by the outcome of this experiment, the bureau made a plant of 40,000 fingerling Chinook in Lake Champlain in the spring of 1910. In that year the commercial fisheries of the United States represented an investment of about $95,000,000, and the value of the products derived from fisheries proper was about $62,000,000.

One of the most noteworthy features of the national government's fish-cultural work is the steadily increasing interest in the utilization of private or semi-private waters for rearing food and game fish. This interest appears in all parts of the country and among all kinds of people, and is evidenced by the requests made to the bureau for desirable fish for stocking purposes. In a single year applications were received for fish for planting in 10,112 different bodies of water, an increase of more than 400 per cent. since 1900.

Salmon Fisheries.—The salmon fisheries of the Alaska region were more extensive and valuable in 1908 than ever before. In taking the catch and preparing and transporting the canned, pickled, fresh, and

frozen fish 12,183 persons were employed and $9,298,800, exclusive of cash capital, were invested, and the value of the output was $10,683,051. The total quantity of salmon taken was 198,952,814 pounds, of which 125,790,470 pounds represented red salmon, 48,029,055 pounds humpbacks, 15,578,570 pounds dog salmon, 5,291,200 pounds of coho or silver salmon, and 4,263,519 pounds king salmon. Fifty canneries and 40 salting establishments were operated, and the quantity of salmon therein utilized was larger than ever before. The pack of canned salmon was 2,618,048 cases, equivalent to 2,606,972 standard cases of 48 one-pound cans each, and the salmon and salmon bellies salted aggregated 35,949 barrels and 6,247 half-barrels.

Fur-seal Fisheries.—The act of Congress approved April 21, 1910, made fundamental changes in the administration of the Pribilov Islands, and on the expiration of the lease previously in force the bureau assumed control of all matters relating to the seal herd and the care, control, and general welfare of the native population. One hundred and fifty thousand dollars was appropriated to give effect to the law, and under its provisions necessary additional employes were appointed and negotiations entered into for purchasing the plant of the former lessees on the islands. In an official report George M. Bowers, Commissioner of the bureau, said of these fisheries:

"The Alaskan fur seals constitute the most valuable fishery resource that any government in the world ever possessed. It is little less than a national disgrace that the herd of four to six million seals which came into our possession when Alaska was acquired from Russia and has been under our charge ever since should have been allowed to dwindle until today it numbers less than 150,000 of all ages. The mildest way in which to characterize the dissipation of this great source of wealth to our people and of revenue to our government is that it is a serious indictment of our business capacity. The extent of our loss may be partially seen when it is stated that the failure to maintain the seal herd has during the last thirteen years resulted in a net loss of revenue of not less than $1,600,000, has permitted nearly 300,000 fur seals, having a market value of over $5,700,000, to be appropriated by aliens, and has encouraged those nefarious pelagic operations by which additional fur seals having a value of at least $5,000,000 have been killed at sea but not recovered; while through the slaughter of breeding females their pups—on the islands, unborn and prospective—with a potential value of fully $20,000,000, have been sacrificed and wasted."

On July 7, 1911, a treaty was signed by the United States, Great Britain, Japan, and Russia for the purpose of putting an end to the killing of fur seals and sea otters on the high seas, the former known as pelagic sealing.

Fisheries Dispute, ARBITRATION OF. The historic Atlantic fisheries controversy, which for 130 years had been a source of annoyance to the United States and Great Britain, was submitted to the International Court of Arbitration at The Hague, June 1, 1910, and the decision announced Sept. 7 following. The dispute arose chiefly over the interpretation of the treaty between the two countries in 1818, but its earliest origins dated back to conditions created by the treaty of 1783. The clause in the treaty of 1818 which caused the greater part of the trouble was as follows:

"That the inhabitants of the United States shall have forever, in common with the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, the liberty to take fish of every kind on that part of the southern coast of Newfoundland extending from Cape Ray to the Ramea Islands, on the western and northern coast from Cape Ray to the Quirpon Islands, on the shores of the Magdalen Islands and also on the coasts, bays, harbors, and creeks from Mount Joli on the southern coast of Labrador to and through the straits of Belleisle, and thence northwardly indefinitely along the coast, without prejudice, however, to any of the exclusive rights of the Hudson's Bay Company."

In return for these privileges the United States renounced forever the right to fish within three marine miles of the coasts of British North America not included within the above. The main source of trouble was the difference of opinion as to the

right of Americans to obtain supplies of the bait fishes—herring, capelin, and squid —in the coast waters of Newfoundland, where alone they are to be had. This right was denied by Newfoundland. Great Britain and Canada became involved in the dispute, and it was finally decided in January, 1909, to submit the whole matter to the Court of Arbitration at The Hague, in accordance with the principles of the convention for the settlement of international disputes signed by many of the Powers, Oct. 18, 1907.

The cause was considered by the following arbitrators: Prof H. Lammasch, of Austria, president; Dr. Luis Drago, of Argentina; Jhr. M. A. F. de Savornin Lohman, of Holland; Sir Charles Fitzpatrick, of Great Britain; and Judge George Gray, of the United States.

The counsel on behalf of the United States were Chandler P. Anderson, of New York, agent; Elihu Root, Senator from New York; George Turner, of Spokane, Wash.; Samuel J. Elder, of Boston, Mass.; Dr. James Brown Scott, Solicitor of the State Department; Charles B. Warren, of Detroit, Mich.; and Robert Lansing, of Watertown, N. Y.

The counsel on behalf of Great Britain were: A. B. Aylesworth, minister of justice of Canada, agent; Sir William Robinson, K. C., attorney-general for England; Sir Robert Finly, K. C., former attorney-general for England; Sir H. Erle Richards, K. C., of England; John S. Ewart, K. C., of Canada; George W. Shepley, K. C., of Canada; W. N. Tilley, of Canada; Sir Edward Morris, K. C., premier of Newfoundland; Sir James Winter, K. C., former attorney-general of Newfoundland, and D. Morison, K. C., attorney-general of Newfoundland.

Seven main questions were submitted for the decision of the arbitrators. The questions and findings were as follows:

1. Must any reasonable regulations made by Great Britain, Canada, and Newfoundland in the form of municipal laws, ordinances, or rules necessary for the preservation of the fisheries and the maintenance of public order and morals, and equitable as between local fishermen and inhabitants of the United States, be subject to the consent of the United States?

The right of Great Britain to make regulations for the preservation of the fisheries without the consent of the United States is affirmed and is declared to be inherent to the sovereign rights of Great Britain. Both parties agree that the reasonableness of the existing regulations should be submitted to an impartial commission of experts. If the United States object to any new regulation it shall not come into operation with respect to the inhabitants of the United States until a permanent mixed fishery commission has decided upon its reasonableness.

2. Have the inhabitants of the United States, while exercising the liberty to take fish on the treaty coasts referred to in the first article of the treaty of 1818, a right to employ, as members of the fishing crews of their vessels, persons not inhabitants of the United States?

The tribunal is of opinion that the inhabitants of the United States, while exercising the liberties referred to in the said article, have the right to employ, as members of the fishing crews of their vessels, persons not inhabitants of the United States. But, in view of preceding considerations, the tribunal, to prevent any misunderstanding as to the effect of its award, expresses the opinion that non-inhabitants employed as members of the fishing crews of United States vessels derive no benefit or immunity from the treaty.

3. Can the liberties to "take fish" and to "dry and cure fish" in the places referred to in the treaties be subjected, without the consent of the United States, to the requirement of entry or report at custom-houses or the payment of light, harbor, or other dues, or to any similar condition?

The tribunal decides and awards as follows: The requirement that an American fishing vessel should report, if proper conveniences for doing so are at hand, is not unreasonable. But the exercise of the fishing liberty by the inhabitants of the United States should not be subjected to the purely commercial formalities of report, entry, and clearance at a custom-house, nor to light, harbor, or other dues not imposed upon Newfoundland fishermen.

4. Can restrictions be imposed upon American fishermen making the exercise of the privileges granted them by the

treaty to enter certain bays or harbors for shelter, repairs, wood, and water conditional upon the payment of light, harbor, or other dues, or entering or reporting at custom-houses, or any similar conditions?

It is decided and awarded that such restrictions are not permissible. It seems reasonable, however, in order that these privileges accorded by Great Britain on these grounds of hospitality and humanity should not be abused; that the American fishermen entering such bays for any of the four purposes aforesaid and remaining more than forty-eight hours therein should be required, if thought necessary by Great Britain or the colonial government, to report either in person or by telegraph at a custom-house or to a customs official, if reasonably convenient opportunity therefor is afforded.

5. What is a "bay," within the meaning of the treaty?

The tribunal decides and awards: In case of bays three marine miles are to be measured from a straight line drawn across the body of water at the place where it ceases to have the configuration and characteristics of a bay. At all other places three marine miles are to be measured following the sinuosities of the coast. Considering that the tribunal cannot overlook that this answer to question five, although correct in principle and the only one possible in view of the want of a sufficient basis for a more concrete answer, is not entirely satisfactory as to its practical applicability, and that it leaves room for doubts and differences in practice; therefore the tribunal considers it its duty to render the decision more practicable and to remove the danger of future differences by adjoining to it a recommendation in virtue of the responsibilities imposed by Article IV of the special agreement. Considering, moreover, that in treaties with France, with the North German confederation and the German Empire, and likewise in the North Sea Convention, Great Britain has adopted for similar cases the rule that only bays of ten miles width should be considered as those wherein the fishing is reserved to nationals, and that in the course of negotiations between Great Britain and the United States a similar rule has been on various occasions proposed and adopted by Great Britain in instructions to the naval officers stationed on these coasts, and that though these circumstances are not sufficient to constitute this a principle of law, it seems reasonable to propose this rule with certain exceptions, all the more that this rule with such exceptions has already formed the basis of an agreement between the two Powers.

6. Does the treaty give the inhabitants of the United States the same liberty to take fish in the bays, harbors, and creeks of Newfoundland as it does in the bays, harbors, and creeks of Labrador?

The tribunal is of opinion that American inhabitants are entitled to fish in the bays, creeks, and harbors of the treaty coasts of Newfoundland and the Magdalen Islands, and it is so decided and awarded.

7. Are the inhabitants of the United States whose vessels resort to the treaty coasts for the purpose of exercising the liberties referred to in Article I of the treaty entitled to have for those vessels, when duly authorized by the United States in that behalf, the commercial privileges on the treaty coasts accorded by agreement or otherwise to United States trading-vessels generally?

The tribunal is of opinion that the inhabitants of the United States are so entitled in so far as concerns this treaty, there being nothing in its provisions to disentitle them, provided the treaty liberty of fishing and the commercial privileges are not exercised concurrently, and it is so decided and awarded.

The document is signed by the five arbitrators, Dr. Drago, however, stating his dissent from the majority in respect to the findings in reply to the fifth question. See ALASKA; ANGLO-AMERICAN COMMISSION; BERING SEA QUESTION; HALIFAX FISHING AWARD.

Fishing Bounties. In 1792 an act of Congress re-established the old system of bounties to which the American fishermen had been accustomed under the British government. All vessels employed for the term of four months at least in each year on the Newfoundland banks and other cod-fisheries were entitled to a bounty varying from $1 to $2.50 per ton, according to their size, three-eighths to go to the owners and five-eighths to the

fishermen. The national benefit of the fisheries as a nursery for seamen in case of war was urged as the chief argument in favor of the bounties. That benefit was very conspicuous when the war with Great Britain occurred in 1812–15.

Fishing Creek, ACTION AT. When General Gates was approaching Camden in 1780 he sent General Sumter with a detachment to intercept a convoy of stores passing from Ninety-six to Rawdon's camp at Camden. Sumter was successful. He captured forty-four wagons loaded with clothing and made a number of prisoners. On hearing of the defeat of Gates, Sumter continued his march up the Catawba River and encamped (Aug. 18) near the mouth of Fishing Creek. There he was surprised by Tarleton, and his troops were routed with great slaughter. More than fifty were killed and 300 were made prisoners. Tarleton recaptured the British prisoners and all the wagons and their contents. Sumter escaped, and in such haste that he rode into Charlotte, N. C., without hat or saddle.

Fisk, CLINTON BOWEN, lawyer; born in Griggsville, N. Y., Dec. 8, 1828; removed with his parents to Michigan while a child, where he became a successful merchant; removed to St. Louis in 1859. In 1861 he was commissioned colonel of the 33d Missouri Regiment; in 1862 was promoted brigadier-general; and in 1865 was brevetted major-general. He was deeply interested in educational and temperance reform; was a founder of Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn.; and was the Prohibition candidate for governor of New Jersey in 1886, and for President of the United States in 1888. He died in New York City, July 9, 1890.

Fiske, AMOS KIDDER, author; born in Whitefield, N. H., May 12, 1842; graduated at Harvard in 1866; admitted to the bar in New York in 1868; and engaged in journalism. He is the author of *Story of the Philippines; The West Indies; The Modern Bank,* etc.

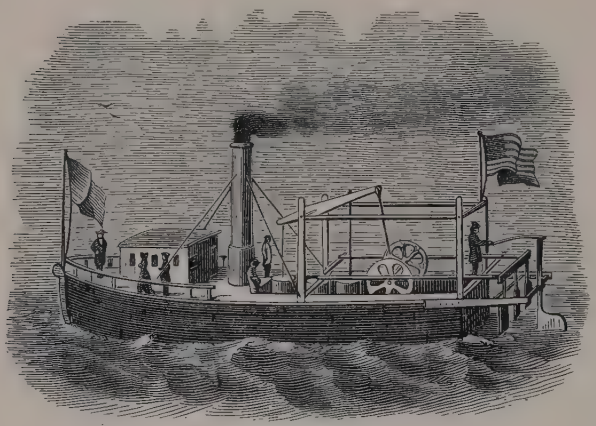
Fiske, JOHN, historian; born in Hartford, Conn., March 31, 1842; graduated at Harvard in 1863 and at its Law School in 1865, but never practised; has since been identified with that institution as instructor, lecturer, assistant librarian, and overseer. He has also been Professor of American History in Washington University, St. Louis, and is a well-known lecturer on historical themes. He was the son of Edmund Brewster Green, of Smyrna, Del., and Mary Fiske Bound, of Middletown, Conn. In 1852

JOHN FISKE.

his father died and three years later his mother married Edwin W. Stoughton, of New York. The same year the boy, whose name was Edmund Fiske Green, assumed the name of John Fiske, which was that of his maternal grandfather. Professor Fiske's works fall under two heads: philosophical, including the *Cosmic Philosophy; Idea of God,* etc.; and historical, including *The Critical Period of American History; Civil Government in the United States; The War of Independence; The American Revolution; The Beginnings of New England; The Discovery of America; Old Virginia and her Neighbors.* His three essays, *The Federal Union (q. v.); The Town-Meeting;* and *Manifest Destiny,* were published in one volume under the title of *American Political Ideas from the Stand-point of Universal History.* With James Grant Wilson he edited *Appleton's Cyclopædia of American Biography.* He died at Gloucester, Mass., July 4, 1901.

Fitch, JOHN, inventor; born in East Windsor, Conn., Jan. 21, 1743; was an armorer in the military service during the

Revolution, and at Trenton, N. J., manufactured sleeve-buttons. For a while, near the close of the war, he was a surveyor in Virginia, during which time he prepared, engraved on copper, and printed on a press of his own manufacture, a map of the Northwest country. He constructed a steamboat in 1786, and a year later built another propelled by six paddles on each side. A company was formed (1788) in Philadelphia, which caused a steam-packet to ply on the Delaware River, and it ran for about two years when the company failed. In 1793 he unsuccessfully tried his steam navigation projects in France. Discouraged, he went to the Western country again, where

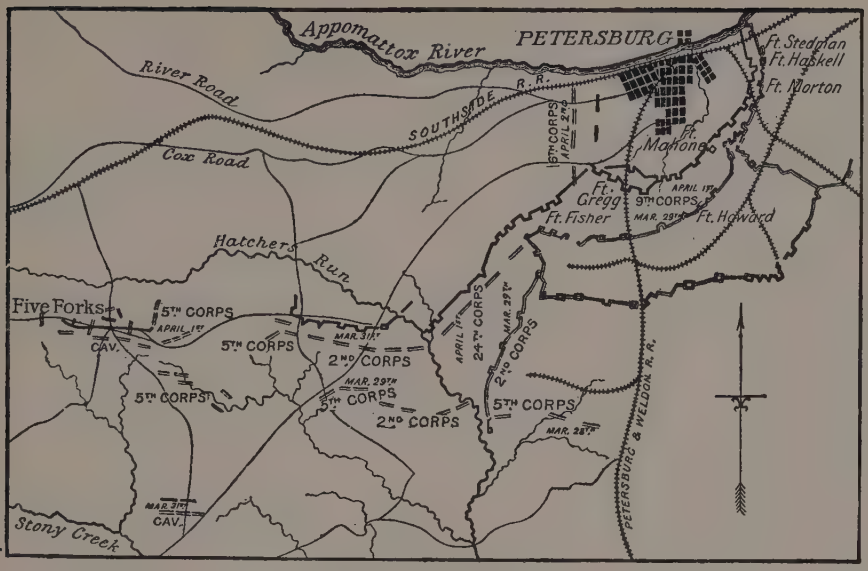


FITCH'S STEAMBOAT.

he died in Bardstown, Ky., July 2, 1798, leaving behind him a history of his adventures in the steamboat enterprise, in a sealed envelope, directed to "My children and future generations," from which Thompson Westcott, of Philadelphia, prepared a biography of Fitch, published in 1867. See STEAM NAVIGATION.

Fitch, THOMAS, colonial governor; born in Norwalk, Conn., in June, 1699; graduated at Yale in 1721; elected governor of Connecticut in 1754; and was in office twelve years. In 1765 he took the oath as prescribed in the Stamp Act, although his action was opposed to the sentiment of almost the entire community. In 1766 he retired to private life in consequence of the election of William Pitkin as governor of the colony. He died in Norwalk, in July, 1777.

Five Forks, BATTLE OF. Sheridan had crossed the Appomattox from Bermuda Hundred, and, passing in the rear of the army before Petersburg, on the morning of March 29, 1865, had halted at Dinwiddie Court-house. A forward movement of the National army had just begun. Warren and Humphreys, with their corps, had moved at an early hour that morning against the flanks of the Confederates, and they bivouacked in front of the works of their antagonists, only 6 miles from Dinwiddie Court-house. Warren had lost 300 men in a fight on the way. On the next day (March 30), Sheridan sent a party of cavalry to the Five Forks, but the Confederate works there were too strongly armed and manned to be ridden over, and the Nationals were driven back to the Court-house. There was some severe fighting that day, without a decisive result. Sheridan was engaged in the struggle, but at midnight he was satisfied that Lee was withdrawing his troops, and felt quite at ease. It was known at headquarters that his troops had been driven back from Five Forks, and that it was uncertain whether he could hold his position. Warren was sent to his aid with a portion of his corps. Ranking Warren, Sheridan became commander of the whole force. Leaving Warren half-way between Dinwiddie Court-house and Five Forks, Sheridan pressed boldly on towards the latter place, with cavalry alone, and drove the Confederates into their works and enveloped them with his overwhelming number of horsemen. He then ordered Warren forward to a position on his right, so as to be fully on the Confederate left. He drove some Confederates towards Petersburg, and returned before Warren was prepared to charge. In the afternoon of March 31 War-



MOVEMENT TOWARDS FIVE FORKS.

ren moved to the attack. Ayres charged upon the Confederate right, carried a portion of the line, and captured more than 1,000 men and several battle-flags. Merritt charged the front, and Griffin fell upon the left with such force that he carried the intrenchments and seized 1,500 men. Crawford, meanwhile, had come forward, cut off their retreat in the direction of Lee's lines, struck them in the rear, and captured four guns. Hard pressed, the Confederates fought gallantly and with great fortitude. At length the cavalry charged over the works simultaneously with the turning of their flanks by Ayres and Griffin, and, bearing down upon the Confederates with great fury, caused a large portion of them to throw

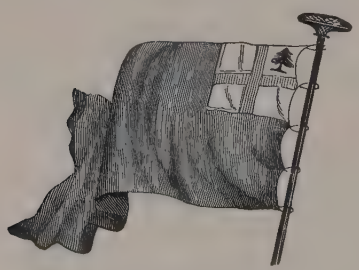
BATTLE OF FIVE FORKS.

down their arms. The Confederates lost a large number of men, and over 5,000 were made prisoners. The Nationals lost about 1,000.

Five Nations, THE, the five Algonquian Indian nations—Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas—who originally formed the IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY (*q. v.*). The Five Nations were joined by the Tuscaroras, from North Carolina, in 1713, and then the confederacy was called the SIX NATIONS (*q. v.*).

Five-Twenties, popular name for the 6 per cent. U. S. bonds issued during the Civil War, as they were redeemable in five and payable in twenty years.

Flag, NATIONAL. Every colony had its peculiar ensign, and the army and navy of the united colonies, at first, displayed various flags, some colonial, others regimental, and others, like the flag at Fort Sullivan, Charleston Harbor, a blue field with a silver crescent, for special occasions. The American flag used at the battle on Bunker (Breed's) Hill, was called the "New England flag." It was a blue ground, with the red cross of St. George in a corner, quartering a white field, and in the upper dexter quartering was the figure of a pine-tree. The New Englanders had also a "pine-tree flag" as well as a "pine-tree shilling." The engraving below is a reduced copy of a vignette on a map of Boston, published in Paris in 1776. The London *Chronicle*, an anti-ministerial paper, in its issue for January, 1776, gives the following description of the flag of an American cruiser that had been captured: "In the



THE NEW ENGLAND FLAG.

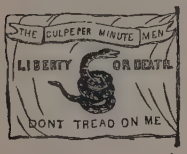
Admiralty Office is the flag of a provincial privateer. The field is white bunting; on the middle is a green pine-tree, and upon the opposite side is the motto 'Appeal to Heaven.'" The Culpeper men, who marched with Patrick Henry towards

THE PINE-TREE FLAG.

Williamsburg to demand instant restoration of powder to the old magazine, or payment for it by Governor Dunmore, bore a flag with a rattlesnake upon it, coiled ready to strike, with Patrick Henry's words and the words "Don't tread on me." It is believed that the first American flag bearing thirteen red and white stripes was a Union flag presented to the Philadelphia Light Horse by Capt. Abraham Markoe, a Dane, probably early in 1775. A "Union flag" is mentioned as having been displayed at a gathering of Whigs at Savannah in June, 1775, probably thirteen stripes. The earliest naval flags exhibited thirteen alternate red and white stripes, some with a pine-tree upon them, and others with a rattlesnake stretched across the field of stripes, and beneath it the words, either imploringly or as a warning, "Don't tread on me." The new Union flag raised at Cambridge, Jan. 1, 1776, was composed of thir-

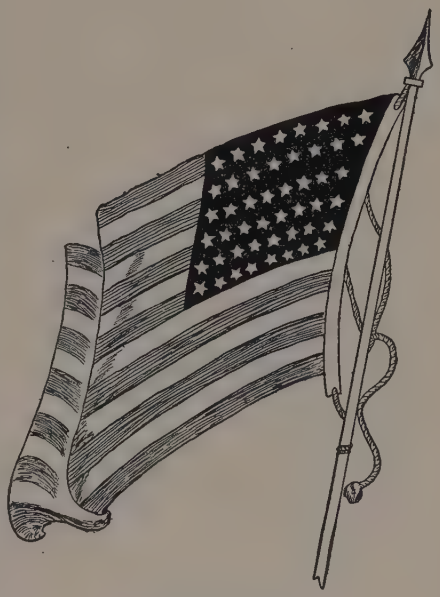
teen alternate red and white stripes, with the English union in one corner.

Finally, the necessity of a *national* flag was felt, especially for the marine service, and the Continental Congress adopted the following resolution, June 14, 1777: "*Resolved*, that the flag of the United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white; that the union be thirteen stars, white, on a blue field, representing a new constellation." There was a dilatoriness in displaying this flag. The resolution was not officially promulgated over the signature of the secretary of the Congress until Sept. 3, though it was previously printed in the newspapers. This was more than a year after the colonies had been declared free and independent. Probably the first display of the national flag at a military post was at Fort Schuyler, on the site of the present city of Rome, N. Y. The fort was besieged early in August, 1777. The garrison were without a flag, so they made one according to the prescription of Congress by cutting up sheets to form the white stripes, bits of scarlet cloth for the red stripes, and the blue ground for the stars was composed of portions of a cloth cloak belonging to Capt. Abraham Swartwout, of Dutchess county, N. Y. This flag was unfurled over the fort on Aug. 3, 1777. Paul Jones was appointed to the *Ranger* on June 14, 1777, and he claimed that he was the first to display the stars and stripes on a naval vessel. The *Ranger* sailed from Portsmouth, N. H., on Nov. 1, 1777. It is probable that the national flag was first unfurled in battle on the banks of the Brandywine, Sept. 11, 1777, the first battle after its adoption.



THE CULPEPER FLAG.

It first appeared over a foreign stronghold, June 28, 1778, when Captain Rathbone, of the American sloop-of-war *Providence*, with his crew and some escaped prisoners, captured Fort Nassau, New Providence, Bahama Islands. The captors were menaced by the people, when the stars and stripes were nailed to the flagstaff in defiance. John Singleton Copley, the American-born painter, in London, claimed to be the first to display the stars and stripes in Great Britain. On the day when George III. acknowledged the independence of the United States, Dec. 5, 1782, he painted the flag of the United States in the background of a portrait of Elkanah Watson. To Captain Mooers, of the whaling-ship *Bedford*, of Nantucket, is doubtless due the honor of first displaying the national flag in a port of Great Britain. He arrived in the Downs, with it flying at the fore, Feb. 3, 1783. That flag was first carried to the East Indian seas in the *Enterprise* (an Albany-built vessel), Capt. Stewart Dean, in 1785. When Vermont and Kentucky were added to the union of States the flag was altered. By an act of Congress (Jan. 13, 1794) the number of the stripes and stars in the flag was increased from thirteen to fifteen. The act went into effect May 1, 1795. From that time until 1818, when there were twenty States, the number of the stars and stripes remained the same. A committee appointed to revise the stand-


THE NATIONAL FLAG

ard invited Capt. Samuel C. Reid, the brave defender of the privateer *Armstrong*, to devise a new flag. He retained the original thirteen stripes, but added a star for every State. That has been the device of the flag of the United States ever since. In 1912 the field of the flag contained forty-eight stars. See Ross, Elizabeth.

Flagg, Wilson, naturalist; born in Beverly, Mass., Nov. 5, 1805; was educated at Phillips Andover Academy; entered Harvard in 1823 and three months later left that college to study medicine, which he never practised. When a young man he lectured on natural science, and made a pedestrian tour from Tennessee to Virginia and then home. Later he became interested in political discussions and contributed articles to the Boston *Weekly Magazine* and the Boston *Post*. He was employed in the Boston custom-house from 1844 to 1848, and removed to Cambridge, Mass., in 1856. Among his publications are *Studies in the Field and Forest; Woods and By-Ways in New England*, etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., May 6, 1884.

Flanagan, Webster, jurist; born in Cloverport, Ky., Jan. 9, 1832; removed to Texas in 1843; was a brigadier-general in the Confederate army; became judge of the 5th Judicial District in 1865; lieutenant-governor in 1871–73; collector of internal revenues and of customs several terms. He was one of the historic 304 "Grant Guard" at the Chicago convention in 1880, who voted for Grant's renomination from the first to the last ballot. He denounced civil-service reform, and became famous by his question, "What are we here for?"

Flanders, Henry, lawyer; born in Plainfield, N. H., Feb. 13, 1826; practised law in Philadelphia since 1850. He is the author of *Lives of the Chief-Justices of the United States; Memoirs of Cumberland; Exposition of the United States Constitution*, etc.

Flathead Indians, a division of the Choctaw (*q. v.*) tribe; named because of their habit of compressing the heads of their male infants; also the name of a branch of the Salishan stock. The former division were engaged on both sides in the French and Indian contests ending in 1763. The second branch lived in British Columbia, Montana, Washington, and Oregon. The people now known in official reports as Flatheads—the Salishan proper—never flattened the head.

Fleet, Thomas, printer; born in England, Sept. 8, 1685; became a printer in Bristol, England, but emigrated to Boston, Mass., in 1712, where he established a printing-office. He married Elizabeth Goose, June 8, 1715. In 1719 he conceived the idea of publishing the songs which his mother-in-law had been singing to his infant son. The book was issued under the title of *Songs for the Nursery; or, Mother Goose's Melodies for Children. Printed by T. Fleet, at his Printing-House, Pudding Lane, 1719. Price, two coppers.* In connection with his printing-office he established the *Weekly Rehearsal*, which was afterwards changed in title to *Boston Evening Post*. He continued as proprietor and editor of this paper until his death, July 21, 1758.

Fleetwood, Battle at. See Brandy Station.

Fleming, Thomas, military officer; born in Botetourt county, Va., in 1727; took part in the great battle of Point Pleasant in 1774 between 1,000 Indians, under Cornstalk, and 400 whites, under Gen. Andrew Lewis. During the fight Colonel Fleming was severely wounded, one ball passing through his breast and another through his arm. At the outbreak of the Revolutionary War he was made colonel of the 9th Virginia Regiment, but in consequence of disease and wounds died in camp in August, 1776.

Fletcher, Benjamin, colonial governor; was a soldier of fortune; received the appointment of governor of New York from William and Mary in 1692, and arrived at New York City on Aug. 29 of that year; later in the year was also commissioned to assume the government of Pennsylvania and the annexed territories; and made his first visit to Philadelphia in April, 1693. Fletcher was a colonel in the British army. Possessed of violent passions, he was weak in judgment, greedy, dishonest, and cowardly. He fell naturally into the hands of the aristocratic party, and his council was composed of the enemies of Leisler. The recklessness of his administration, his avarice, his evident prostitution of his office to personal gain, disgusted all parties. He

continually quarrelled with the popular Assembly, and his whole administration was unsatisfactory. The Quaker-governed Assembly of Pennsylvania thwarted his schemes for obtaining money for making war on the French; and he was fortunately led by Col. Peter Schuyler in all his military undertakings. The Assembly of Connecticut denied his right to control their militia; and late in the autumn of 1693 he went to Hartford with Colonel Bayard and others from New York, and in the presence of the train-bands of that city, commanded by Captain Wadsworth, he directed (so says tradition) his commission to be read. Bayard began to read, when Wadsworth ordered the drums to be beaten. "Silence!" said Fletcher, angrily. When the reading was again begun, "Drum! drum!" cried Wadsworth. "Silence!" again shouted Fletcher, and threatened the captain with punishment. Wadsworth stepped in front of the governor, and, with his hand on the hilt of his sword, he said: "If my drummers are again interrupted, I'll make sunlight shine through you. We deny and defy your authority." The cowed governor sullenly folded the paper, and with his retinue returned to New York.

With a pretended zeal for the cause of religion, Fletcher procured the passage of an act by the Assembly for building churches in various places, and under it the English Church and preaching in English were introduced into New York. Trinity Church was organized under the act, and its present church edifice stands where the first structure was erected.

Fletcher, FRANK FRIDAY, naval officer, born in Oskaloosa, Ia., Nov. 23, 1855; was graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1875; reached the rank of rear-admiral in 1911; and was made commander-in-chief of the Atlantic battleship fleet, with the newly created rank of admiral, March 10, 1915. On April 21, 1914, he occupied the city and harbor of Vera Cruz, Mexico, with a naval force; on the 28th he established civil government under martial law there; and on the 30th he withdrew his force and turned the command of the city over to the army, under command of Brig.-Gen. FREDERICK FUNSTON (*q. v.*).

Fletcher, WILLIAM ISAAC, librarian; born in Burlington, Vt., April 28, 1844; librarian of Amherst College from 1883. Author of *Public Libraries in America;* joint editor of *Poole's Index to Periodical Literature;* and editor of the *Co-operative Index to Periodicals,* etc.

Fleury, LOUIS, CHEVALIER AND VISCOUNT DE, military officer; born in Limoges, France, about 1740; was educated for an engineer, and, coming to America, received a captain's commission from Washington. For his good conduct in the campaign of 1777, Congress gave him a horse and commission of lieutenant-colonel, Nov. 26, 1777; and in the winter of 1778 he was inspector under Steuben. He was adjutant-general of Lee's division in June, 1779, and was so distinguished at the assault on Stony Point, July, 1779, that Congress gave him thanks and a silver medal. De Fleury returned to France soon after the affair at Stony

MEDAL AWARDED TO LIEUTENANT-COLONEL DE FLEURY.

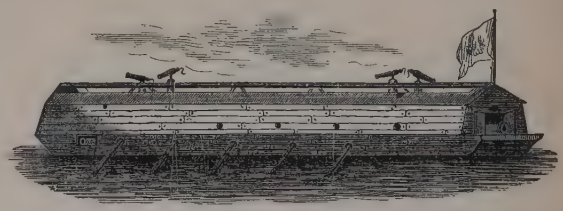
Point, before the medal was struck; and it was probably never in his possession, for it seems to have been lost, probably while Congress was in session at Princeton. In April, 1859, a boy found it while digging in a garden at Princeton. De Fleury, on his return to France, joined the French troops under Rochambeau sent to America in 1780. Subsequently he became a field marshal of France, and was executed in Paris, in 1794.

Flint, Henry Martyn, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., March 24, 1829; studied law and settled in Chicago, where he edited the *Times* in 1855–61. He was the author of a *Life of Stephen A. Douglas; The History and Statistics of the Railroads of the United States;* and *Mexico under Maximilian.* He died in Camden, N. J., Dec. 12, 1868.

Flint, Timothy, clergyman; born in Reading, Mass., July 11, 1780; graduated at Harvard in 1880; became minister of the Congregational Church at Lunenburg, Mass., in 1802, but resigned in 1814. He went West as a missionary, but was obliged to give up in consequence of ill health. He then devoted himself to literature, and edited the *Western Review* in Cincinnati, and, for a short time, the *Knickerbocker Magazine* in New York. Among his publications are *Recollections of Ten Years Passed in the Valley of the Mississippi; Biography and History of the Western States in the Mississippi Valley* (2 volumes); *Indian Wars of the West; Memoir of Daniel Boone,* etc. He died in Salem, Mass., Aug. 16, 1840.

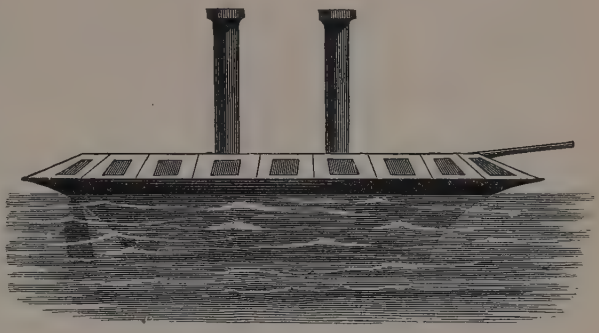
Floating Batteries. The first American floating battery was seen in the Charles River, at Boston, in October, 1775. Washington had ordered the construction of two, to assist in the siege of the New England capital. They were armed and manned, and on Oct. 26 opened fire on the town, producing much consternation. They appear to have been made of strong planks, pierced near the water-line for oars, and further up were port-holes for musketry and the admission of light. A heavy gun was placed in each end, and upon the top were four swivels. The ensign was the pine-tree flag. Colonel Reed, writing to Colonel Moylan, on Oct. 20, 1775, said: "Please to fix some particular color for a flag and a signal, by which our vessels may know each other. What do you think of a flag with a white ground, a tree in the middle, and the motto 'An Appeal to Heaven?' This is the flag of our floating batteries." When the War of 1812–15 broke out, the subject of harbor defences occupied much of the attention of citizens of the American coast towns, especially in the city of New York. Among the scientific men of the day, John Stevens and Robert Fulton appear conspicuous in proposing plans for that purpose. Earlier than this (in 1807), Abraham Bloodgood, of Albany, suggested the construction of a floating revolving battery not unlike, in its essential character, the revolving turret built by Captain Ericsson in the winter of 1861–62. In March, 1814, Thomas Gregg, of Pennsylvania, obtained a patent for a proposed iron-clad steam vessel-of-war, resembling in figure the gunboats and rams used during the Civil War.

At about the same time a plan of a floating battery submitted by Robert Fulton was approved by naval officers. It was in the form of a steamship of peculiar construction, that might move at the rate of 4 miles an hour, and furnished, in addition to its regular armament, with submarine guns. Her construction was ordered by Congress, and she was built at the ship-yard of Adam and Noah Brown, at Corlear's Hook, New York, under the supervision of Fulton. She was launched Oct. 29, 1814. Her machinery was tested in May following, and on July 4, 1815, she made a trial-trip of 53 miles to the ocean and back, going at the rate of 6 miles an hour. This vessel was called



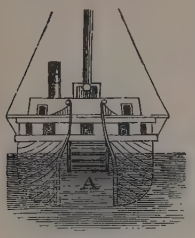
THE FIRST AMERICAN FLOATING BATTERY.

Fulton the First. She measured 145 feet on deck and 55 feet breadth of beam; drew only 8 feet of water; mounted thirty 32-pounder carronades, and two columbiads of 100 lbs. each. She was to be commanded by Captain Porter. It was a structure resting upon two boats on keels, separated from end to end by a channel 15 feet wide and 60 feet long. One boat contained the boiler for generating steam, which was made of copper. The machinery occupied the other boat. The water-wheel (A) revolved in the space between them. The main or gun deck supported the armament, and was protected by a parapet 4 feet 10 inches thick, of solid timber, pierced by embrasures.



GREGG'S IRON-CLAD VESSEL IN 1814.

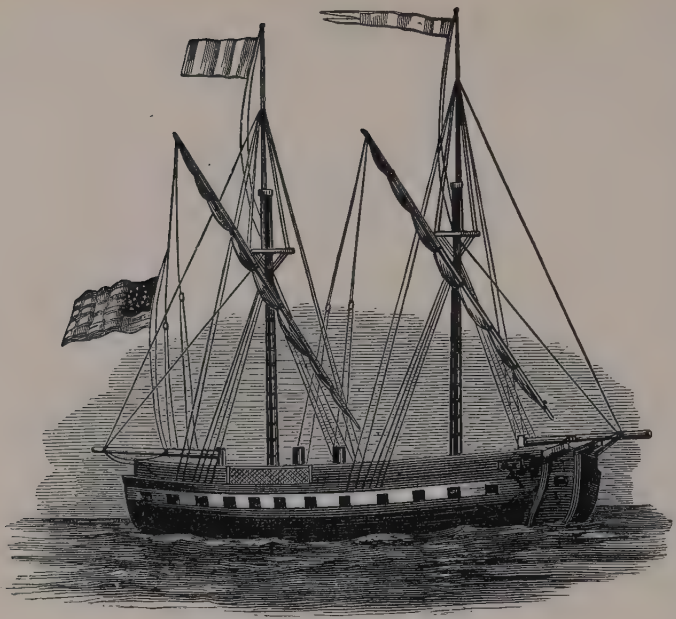
Through twenty-five port-holes were as many 32-pounders, intended to fire red-hot shot, which could be heated with great safety and convenience. Her upper or spar deck, upon which many hundred men might parade, was encompassed with a bulwark for safety. She was rigged with two stout masts, each of which supported a large lateen-yard and sails. She had two bowsprits and jibs, and four rudders, one at each extremity of each boat, so that she might be steered with either end foremost. Her machinery was calculated for an additional engine, which might discharge an immense volume of water which it was intended to throw upon the decks and through the port-holes of an enemy, and thereby deluge her armament and ammunition. The most extravagant stories concerning this monster of the deep went forth at about the time of her being launched. In a treatise on steam vessels, published in Scotland soon afterwards, the author said: "Her length is 300 feet; breadth, 200 feet; thickness of her sides, 13 feet, of alternate oak plank and cork-wood; carries forty-four guns, four of which are 100-pounders; can discharge 100 gallons of boiling water in a few minutes, and by mechanism brandishes 300 cutlasses with the utmost regularity over her gunwales; works, also, an equal number of pikes of great length, darting them from her sides with prodigious force, and withdrawing them every quarter of a minute."



SECTION OF THE FLOATING BATTERY FULTON.

The Confederates of South Carolina constructed a floating battery in Charleston harbor in the winter of 1861. It was a curious monster, made of heavy pine timber, filled in with palmetto-logs, and covered with a double layer of railroad iron. It appeared like an immense shed, 25 feet in width, and, with its appendage, about 100 feet in length. It mounted in its front (which sloped inwards from its iron-clad roof) four enormous siege-guns. The powder magazine was in the rear, below the water-line, and at its extremity was a platform covered with sand-bags, to protect its men and balance the heavy guns. Attached to it was a floating hospital. It was intended to tow this monster to a position so as to bring its guns to bear on Fort Sumter.

Stevens's floating battery was a more formidable structure. This battery had been in process of construction by Messrs. Stevens, of Hoboken, N. J., for several years before the Civil War. It was intended solely for harbor defence. Already there had been about $1,000,000 spent upon it, chiefly by the United States



FLOATING BATTERY FULTON THE FIRST.

government, and yet it was not completed. Until just before the war it had been shut in from the public eye. It was to be 700 feet in length, covered with iron plates, so as to be proof against shot and shell of every kind. It was to be moved by steam-engines of sufficient strength to give it a momentum that would cause it, as a "ram," to cut in two any ship-of-war then known when it should strike her at the waist. It was intended for a battery of sixteen heavy rifled cannon in bomb-proof casemates, and two heavy columbiads for throwing shells. The latter were to be on deck, fore and aft. The smoke-stack was to be constructed in sliding sections, like a telescope, for obvious purposes; and the vessel was so constructed that it might be sunk to the level of the water. Its burden was rated at 6,000 tons. It was not completed when the Civil War ended. The following is a portion of the specification: "The boat is framed on an angle of about eighteen degrees all round the vessel, where the top timbers elevate the balls, and the lower ones direct them under her. The top deck, which glances the ball, may be hung on a mass of hinges near the ports. Said deck is supported by knees and cross-timbers on the lower sides, so that it may be sprung with powder, if required (when boarded by the enemy), to a perpendicular, when the said deck will be checked by stays, while the power of powder will be exhausted in the open air, and then fall or spring to the centre of the deck again. The aforesaid deck will run up and down with the angle, which may be coppered or laid with iron. The gun-deck may be bored at pleasure, to give room, if required, as the men and guns are under said deck. The power is applied between her keels, where there is a concave formed to receive them from the bow to the stern, except a small distance in each end, form-

FLOATING BATTERY AT CHARLESTON.

ing an eddy. The power may be reversed to propel her either way. Said power is connected to upright levers, to make horizontal strokes alternately." This project was abandoned and the battery was sold at auction in 1880. See STEVENS, JOHN.

Floods. See INUNDATIONS.

Flores, the westernmost island of the Azores; discovered in 1439.

Flogging. This was abolished in the United States navy Sept. 28, 1850, and in the United States army Aug. 5, 1861.

FLORIDA

Florida (named by Ponce de Leon "the flowery land," because he landed here on the day of the Spanish festival of *Pascua de Flores*, or *Pascua Florida*, the feast of flowers, corresponding to Easter Sunday), a State in the South Atlantic Division of the North American Union; bounded on the n. by Alabama and Georgia, e. by the Atlantic Ocean, s. by Florida Strait and the Gulf of Mexico, and w. by the Gulf of Mexico and Alabama; area, 58,606 square miles, of which 3,805 are water surface; extreme breadth e. to w., 400 miles; extreme length n. to s., 460 miles; number of counties, 45; capital, Tallahassee; popular name, "The Peninsular State"; State motto, "In God We Trust"; organized as a Territory March 30, 1822; admitted into the Union as the twenty-seventh State March 3, 1845; seceded Jan. 10, 1861; readmitted July 4, 1868; population (1910), 751,139.

STATE SEAL OF FLORIDA.

General Statistics.—Florida is noted for its equable climate, forest products, orange groves, sponge and other fisheries, phosphate deposits, and its various tobacco industries. It is the largest producer of phosphate rock in the country, with an average annual output of over 76 per cent. of the total yield. From 1888, when systematic mining began, to 1910 this industry yielded an aggregate value of over $65,000,000, the annual output in recent years exceeding $8,500,000 in value. There are over 49,800 farms, containing 1,803,000 improved acres, and representing in land, buildings, and implements more than $122,000,000. The annual value of ordinary farm crops exceeds $9,000,000, and the value of live-stock $20,547,000. In the period of 1839–1910 the highest single-year production of cotton fibre was 71,923 bales, and highest value $5,550,000; and the highest production of cottonseed was 38,000 short tons, and highest value $920,000. The highest combined values (1910) aggregated over $6,470,000. Orange groves contain over 2,500,000 bearing trees, which yield an annual value of more than $4,000,000. The manufacturing industries, chiefly cigars, lumber and timber products, turpentine and rosin, and fertilizers from phosphate rock, in the order given, represent 2,156 factory-system plants, a combined capital of over $65,128,000, and an output value of nearly $73,000,000.

Business interests are promoted by forty-three national banks, with $5,750,800 capital and $44,562,000 resources, and exchanges at the clearing-house at Jacksonville have reached $117,081,700 in a single year. Besides its large domestic trade, especially in cigars, naval stores, oranges, and fertilizers, Florida has a considerable direct foreign commerce in general merchandise, its imports reaching nearly $7,700,000 and its exports $37,500,000 in a year. The ports of entry, in the order of their total trade, are Pensacola, Tampa, Fernandina, Key West, Jacksonville, St. Marks, Apalachicola, and St. Augustine.

Religious concerns include 3,370 organizations, having 3,061 church edifices, 221,-

318 communicants or members, 124,592 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $5,795,859, the strongest denominations numerically being the Baptist, Methodist, Roman Catholic, and Protestant Episcopal, in the order given. The Protestant Episcopal Church has bishops at Jacksonville and Orlando, and the Roman Catholic one at St. Augustine. The public-school age is 6–21; enumeration, 211,530; enrollment, 141,928; average daily attendance, 101,780; value of public-school property, $2,602,930; total revenue, $1,633,179; total expenditure, $1,714,938. For the higher education of men and both sexes there are the University of Florida, with colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts and law at Gainesville; John B. Stetson University (Bapt.), with college of law, at De Land, and Rollins College (non-sect.), at Winter Park. For women only, the Florida State College for Women, at Tallahassee; for theology, St. Leo Abbey and College (R. C.); and for manual training, the Florida Normal Institute, at Madison. Special institutions for the colored race include the Robert Hungerford Normal and Industrial School (non-sect.), at Eatonville; Fessenden Academy and Industrial School (non-sect.), at Fessenden; Cookman Institute (M. E.), at Jacksonville; Florida Baptist Academy, at Jacksonville; Emerson Memorial Home and School (M. E.), at Ocala; Normal and Industrial School (non-sect.), at Pensacola; and the Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes (non-sect.), at Tallahassee. There are a State Reform School at Mariana, a State School for the Deaf and Blind at St. Augustine, a State Asylum for the Insane at Chattahoochee, and a Confederate Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Tallahassee.

Government.—Under the constitution

SCENE OF THE MURDER OF THE HUGUENOTS BY MENENDEZ.

adopted in 1868 and amended in 1875, 1890, and 1900, the executive authority is vested in a governor (annual salary, $5,000), secretary of state, treasurer, comptroller, attorney-general, auditor, adjutant-general, superintendent of public instruction, and commissioners of agriculture and railroads—official terms four years. The legislature consists of a Senate of thirty-two members and a House of Representatives of seventy members; terms of senators, four years; of representatives, two years; salary of each, $6 per diem; sessions biennial; limit, sixty days. The chief judicial authority is a Supreme Court, comprising a chief magistrate and five associate justices. In 1911 the State had a bonded debt of $601,567; total assessed valuations ("full cash value"), $177,723,981; and tax rate of $7.50 per $1,000.

The general vagrancy law of the State was amended in 1905, and when the law in its new form had been in operation less than two years complaints became frequent that persons were being held in peonage in the State, especially in the turpentine-camps and phosphate-mines. In reporting on the complaints Charles W. Russell, assistant attorney-general, declared that the law was being used to place people in peonage in convict camps, and that "these laws have become a trap for the enslavement of white workmen as well as black." In the legislative session of 1907 laws were passed directed against bribery, prohibiting dealing in "futures," forbidding the employment of children under twelve years of age in mercantile or mechanical establishments, and authorizing a geological survey of the State. During 1909–10 150 school-improvement associations were formed throughout the State, with a membership of more than 10,000, to secure a State compulsory education law and at least one high school in each county.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

Name.	Date.
Andrew Jackson	1821 to 1822
William P. Duval	1822 " 1834
John H. Eaton	1834 " 1836
Richard K. Call	1836 " 1839
Robert R. Reid	1839 " 1841
Richard K. Call	1841 " 1844
John Branch	1844 " 1845

STATE GOVERNORS.

Name.	Date.
William D. Moseley	1845 to 1849
Thomas Brown	1849 " 1853
James E. Broome	1853 " 1857
Madison S. Perry	1857 " 1861
John Milton	1861 " 1865
William Marvin	1865 " 1866
David S. Walker	1866 " 1868
Harrison Reed	1868 " 1872
Ossian B. Hart	1872 " 1874
Marcellus L. Stearns	1874 " 1877
George F. Drew	1877 " 1881
William D. Bloxham	1881 " 1885
Edward A. Perry	1885 " 1889
Francis P. Fleming	1889 " 1893
Henry L. Mitchell	1893 " 1897
William D. Bloxham	1897 " 1901
William S. Jennings	1901 " 1905
Napoleon B. Broward	1905 " 1909
Albert W. Gilchrist	1909 " ——

Florida ranked twenty-sixth in population among the States and Territories under the census of 1830; twenty-seventh in 1840; thirty-first in 1850 and 1860; thirty-third in 1870; thirty-fourth in 1880 and 1910; and thirty-second in 1890 and 1900.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Date.
James D. Westcott, Jr.	29th to 30th	1845 to 1849
David L. Yulee	29th " 31st	1845 " 1851
Jackson Morton	31st " 33d	1849 " 1855
Stephen R. Mallory	32d " 36th	1851 " 1861
David L. Yulee	34th " 36th	1855 " 1861
[37th, 38th, and 39th Congresses, seats vacant.]		
Thomas W. Osborn	40th to 42d	1868 to 1873
Adonijah S. Welch	40th	1868
Abijah Gilbert	41st " 43d	1869 to 1875
Simon B. Conover	43d " 45th	1873 " 1879
Charles W. Jones	44th " 49th	1875 " 1887
Wilkinson Call	46th " 54th	1879 " 1897
Samuel Pasco	50th " 56th	1887 " 1899
Stephen R. Mallory	54th " 60th	1897 " 1907
James P. Taliaferro	56th " 61st	1899 " 1911
William J. Bryan	60th	1907 " 1908
William H. Milton	60th " 61st	1908 " 1909
Duncan U. Fletcher	61st " ——	1909 " ——

In the apportionment of representation in Congress, Florida was given one member under the censuses of 1840, 1850, and 1860; two under those of 1870, 1880, and 1890; three in 1900, and four in 1910.

History: Period of Discovery.—It is believed that Florida was discovered prior to 1500, though the earliest records extant give Juan Ponce de Leon, that restless searcher after the mythical fountain of perpetual youth, the credit of having first visited and named the portion of the coast now embraced within the limits of the State. He landed at St. Augustine on Easter Sunday, 1512, and named the

territory. He had no conception of the extent of the country about him, hence the name was without restrictions and came to be employed by early Spanish writers to designate a vast expanse lying north and west of the immediate vicinity of St. Augustine. A short time sufficed to convince him that he was as far away as ever from the coveted fountain of youth, and he left that region to explore others. In 1516 he returned, this time determined on discovering the *eldorado*, or land of fabulous wealth in gold and silver; made some fruitless journeys to the interior, and set sail for Cuba. After him came Vasquez, a Spaniard, 1520; Verrazzano, a Florentine, 1523; De Garay, a Spaniard, 1524; and Pamfilo de Narvaez, who received from Charles V. of Spain a grant of all land between Cape Florida and Rio Panuco, 1526. Narvaez landed with a considerable army at Apalachee, 1528; was successfully resisted by the Indians, and, taking to his ships, was lost with all but ten of his followers in a storm off Panuco. In 1539 Ferdinand de Soto made a landing, explored the country between the Atlantic and the Mississippi River with considerable thoroughness, and died without making any attempt at settlement, 1542.

Period of Settlement.—During the next twenty years the Spaniards made numerous attempts to found settlements, the most successful of which was that directed by Pedro Menendez at a point just below the present St. Augustine, where a fort was built. Don Tristan de Luna sailed from Vera Cruz, Mexico, Aug. 14, 1559, with 1,500 soldiers, many zealous friars who wished to convert the heathen, and many women and children, families of the soldiers. He landed near the site of Pensacola, and a week afterwards a terrible storm destroyed all his vessels and strewed the shores with their fragments. He sent an exploring party into the interior. They traveled forty days through a barren and almost uninhabited country, and found a deserted Indian village, but not a trace of the wealth with which it was supposed Florida abounded. Constructing a vessel sufficient to bear messengers to the viceroy of Mexico, De Luna sent them to ask for aid to return. Two vessels were sent by the viceroy, and two years after his departure De Luna returned to Mexico.

Next came the expedition of French Protestants sent out by Admiral de Coligny, which was landed near Menendez's settlement, 1563–64. In 1565, just as these refugees were beginning to experience relief from persecution, the Spaniards attacked them, and after killing nearly all, hung their bodies to the trees, "not as Frenchmen, but as heretics and enemies of God." Menendez then left a garrison in the fort and, moving north, founded St. Augustine and built another fort, 1565. While engaged there a French force under Dominique de Gourges was landed at the Huguenot settlement to avenge the Spanish murders. The garrison left by Menendez was attacked, captured, and hung on the same trees, to which an inscription was affixed, "Not as Spaniards, but as cutthroats and murderers." In 1584 two English captains took possession of the north coast portion in the name of England, and in 1586 Sir Francis Drake captured the fort and settlement at St. Augustine, which had been besieged unsuccessfully many times. Soon afterward, however, the place was restored to Spain, and in the absence of records to the contrary, it may be assumed that during the ensuing century that country succeeded in holding it. In 1682 La Salle established several French settlements in western Florida, now Louisiana; 1696, a French settlement was made at Pensacola; 1702, an expedition from the Carolinas attacked St. Augustine without success; and 1704, a similar expedition captured Fort St. Mark.

Oglethorpe's Invasion.—When Oglethorpe returned to Georgia from England (1736) he discovered a hostile feeling among the Spaniards at St. Augustine. They had tried to incite the Indians against the new settlements, and also to procure the assassination of Oglethorpe. The latter, not fairly prepared to resist an invasion, sent a messenger to St. Augustine to invite the Spanish commandant to a friendly conference. He explored some of the coast islands and prepared for fortification. His messenger did not return, and he proceeded to secure possession of the country so far as its defined boundary permitted him. His hostile preparations made the Spaniards vigilant, and even threaten war; and when, in 1739, there was war between England and Spain, he determined to strike

the Spaniards at St. Augustine a heavy blow before they were fully prepared to resist it. He penetrated Florida with a small force and captured some outposts early in 1740; and in May he marched towards St. Augustine with 600 regular troops, 400 Carolina militia, and a large body of friendly Indians. With these he stood before St. Augustine in June, after capturing two forts, and demanded the instant surrender of the post. It was refused, and Oglethorpe determined to starve the garrison by close investment. The town was surrendered, and a small squadron blockaded the harbor. Swift-sailing galleys ran the weak blockade and supplied the fort. Oglethorpe had no cannon and could not breach the walls. In the heat of summer malaria invaded his camp, the siege was raised and he returned to Savannah. Hostilities were then suspended for about two years.

Ceded to Great Britain.—In 1763 Florida was ceded by Spain to Great Britain in exchange for Cuba; the territory was divided into two provinces, with the Apalachicola River as the boundary; and a number of colonies were established under a royal proclamation.

In the summer of 1776 a citizen of Georgia visited Gen. Charles Lee at Charleston and persuaded him that St. Augustine could be easily taken. The man was a stranger, but without further inquiry Lee announced to the Continental troops under his command that he had planned for them a safe, sure, and remunerative expedition, of which the very large booty would be all their own. Calling it a secret, he let everybody know its destination. Without adequate preparation, without a field-piece or a medicine chest, he hastily marched off the Virginia and North Carolina troops in the second week of August to the malarious regions of Georgia. By his order, Howe, of North Carolina, and Moultrie, of South Carolina, soon followed. About 460 men from South Carolina were sent to Savannah by water, with two field-pieces, and on the 18th Lee, after reviewing the collected troops, sent the Virginians and a portion of the South Carolinians to Sunbury. The fever made sad havoc among them and fourteen or fifteen men were buried daily. Then Lee sought to shift from himself to Moultrie the further conduct of the expedition, for he saw it must be disastrous. Moultrie warned him that no available resources which would render success possible had been provided, and the wretched expedition was then abandoned. Fortunately for his reputation Lee was ordered North early in September and joined Washington on Harlem Heights. See LEE, CHARLES.

Tory refugees from Georgia acquired considerable influence over the Creek Indians, and from east Florida, especially from St. Augustine, made predatory excursions among their former neighbors. Gen. Robert Howe, commanding the Southern Department, in 1778 was ordered from Charleston to Savannah to protect the Georgians and attack St. Augustine. A considerable body of troops led by Howe, and accompanied by General Houston, of Georgia, penetrated as far as the St. Mary's River, where sickness, loss of draught-horses, and disputes about command checked the expedition and caused it to be abandoned. The refugees in Florida retaliated by an invasion in their turn.

In the summer of that year two bodies of armed men, composed of regulars and refugees, made a rapid incursion into Georgia from east Florida—one in boats through the inland navigation, the other overland by way of the Altamaha River. The first party advanced to Sunbury and summoned the fort to surrender. Colonel McIntosh, its commander, replied, "Come and take it." The enterprise was abandoned. The other corps pushed on towards Savannah, but was met by about 100 militia, with whom they skirmished. In one of these General Scriven, who commanded the Americans, was mortally wounded. Near Ogeechee Ferry the invaders were repulsed by General Elbert with 200 Continental soldiers. Hearing of the repulse at Sunbury, they also retreated.

Spanish Invasion.—Galvez, the Spanish governor of New Orleans, took measures in 1779 to establish the claim of Spain to the territory east of the Mississippi. He invaded west Florida with 1,400 men, Spanish regulars, American volunteers, and colored people. He took Fort Bute, at Pass Manshac (September, 1779), and then went against Baton Rouge, where the Brit-

ish had 400 regulars and 100 militia. The post speedily surrendered, as did also Fort Panmure, recently built at Natchez. A few months later he captured Mobile, leaving Pensacola the only port of west Florida in possession of the British. On May 9 in the following year Don Galvez took possession of Pensacola, capturing or driving away the British there, and soon afterwards completed the conquest of the whole of west Florida.

By the treaty of 1783 Florida was retroceded to Spain, and the western boundary was defined, when a greater part of the inhabitants emigrated to the United States. When, in 1803, Louisiana was ceded to the United States by France, it was declared to be ceded with the same extent that it had in the hands of Spain, and as it had been ceded by Spain to France. This gave the United States a claim to the country west of the Perdido River.

Claimed by United States.—The success of Napoleon's arms in Spain and the impending peril to the Spanish monarchy gave occasion for revolutionary movements in the Spanish province of west Florida bordering on the Mississippi early in 1810. That region undoubtedly belonged to the United States as a part of Louisiana bought from the French, but Spain had refused to relinquish it. The inhabitants were mostly of British or American birth. Early in the autumn of 1810 they seized the fort at Baton Rouge, met in convention, and proclaimed themselves independent, adopting a single star for their flag, as the Texans did in 1836. There were some conflicts between the revolutionists and adherents of the Spanish connection, and an attack upon the insurgents seemed imminent from the Spanish garrison at Mobile. Through Holmes, governor of the Mississippi Territory, the revolutionists applied to the United States for recognition and aid. They claimed all the unlocated lands in the domain, pardon for all deserters from the United States army (of whom there were many among them), and an immediate loan of $100,000.

Seizure of Territory.—Instead of complying with these requirements, the President issued a proclamation for taking possession of the east bank of the Mississippi, an act which had been delayed because of conciliatory views towards Spain. Claiborne, governor of the Orleans Territory, then in Washington, was sent in haste to take possession, authorized, in case of resistance, to call upon the regular troops stationed on the Mississippi, and upon the militia of the two adjoining Territories. It was not necessary. Soon after this movement at Baton Rouge a man named Kemper, who purported to act under the Florida insurgents, approached Mobile, with some followers, to attempt the capture of the garrison. He was repulsed; but the alarmed Spanish governor wrote to the American authorities that if he were not speedily reinforced he should be disposed to treat for the transfer of the entire province. Congress passed an act authorizing the President to take possession of both east and west Florida to prevent its falling into the hands of another foreign power. Thus it might be held subject to future peaceful negotiations with Spain. Florida, it will be remembered, was divided into two provinces, east and west. The boundary line was the Perdido River, east of Mobile Bay. The Georgians coveted east Florida, and in the spring of 1812 Brig.-Gen. George Mathews, of the Georgia militia, who had been appointed a commissioner, under an act of a secret session of Congress in 1810–11, to secure that province should it be offered to the United States, stirred up an insurrection there. Amelia Island (*q. v.*), lying a little below the dividing line between Georgia and Florida, was chosen for a base of operations. The fine harbor of its capital, Fernandina, was a place of great resort for smugglers during the days of the embargo, and, as neutral ground, might be made a dangerous place. The possession of the island and harbor was therefore important to the Americans, and a sought-for pretext for seizing it was soon found. The Florida insurgents planted the standard of revolt, March, 1812, on the bluff opposite the town of St. Mary, on the border-line. Some United States gunboats under Commodore Campbell were in the St. Mary's River, and Mathews had some United States troops at his command near. The insurgents, 220 in number, sent a flag of truce, March 17, to Fernandina demanding the sur-

render of the town and island. About the same time the American gunboats appeared there. The authorities bowed in submission, and General Mathews, assuming the character of a protector, took possession of the place in the name of the United States. At the same time the commodore assured the Spanish governor that the gunboats were there only for aid and protection to a large portion of the population, who thought proper to declare themselves independent.

they had lost in the Territory. The United States government would not countenance this kind of filibustering, and Mathews was superseded as commissioner April 10, 1812, by Governor Mitchell, of Georgia. Mitchell, professing to believe Congress would sanction Mathews's proceedings, made no change in policy. The House of Representatives did actually pass a bill, in secret session, June 21, authorizing the President to take possession of east Florida. The Senate rejected it, for it would

OLD SPANISH FORT AT ST. AUGUSTINE.

On the 19th the town was formally given up to the United States authorities; a custom-house was established; the floating property in the harbor was considered under the protection of the United States flag, and smuggling ceased. The insurgent band, swelled to 800 by reinforcements from Georgia and accompanied by troops furnished by General Mathews, besieged the Spanish garrison at St. Augustine, for it was feared the British might help the Spaniards in recovering what

have been unwise to quarrel with Spain at the moment when war was about to be declared against Great Britain.

Jackson's invasion of Florida and his capture of Pensacola caused much political debate in and out of Congress. By some he was much censured, by others praised. The United States government upheld him, and the Secretary of State, John Q. Adams, made an able plea of justification on the ground of the well-known interference of the Spanish au-

thorities in Florida in American affairs, and the giving of shelter to British subjects inciting the Indians to make war. It was thought the British government would take notice of the summary execution of Arbuthnot and Ambrister (see SEMINOLE WAR); but it took the ground that British subjects meddling in the affairs of a foreign nation must take the consequences.

Ceded to the United States.—Secretary Adams and the Spanish minister, Don Onis, had been in correspondence for some time concerning the settlement of the Florida question and the western boundary of the United States next to the Spanish possessions. Finally, pending discussion in Congress on Jackson's vigorous proceedings in Florida, the Spanish minister, under new instructions from home, signed a treaty Feb. 22, 1819, for the cession of Florida, on the extinction of the various American claims for spoliation, for the satisfaction of which the United States agreed to pay to the claimants $5,000,000. The Louisiana boundary, as fixed by the treaty, was a compromise between the respective offers heretofore made, though leaning a good deal towards the American side. It was agreed that the Sabine to lat. 33° N., thence a north meridian line to the Red River, the course of that river to long. 100° W., thence north by that meridian to the Arkansas River to its head and to lat. 42° N., and along that degree to the Pacific Ocean, should be the boundary between the possessions of the United States and Spain. The Florida treaty was immediately ratified by the United States Senate, and in expectation of a speedy ratification by Spain an act was passed to authorize the President to take possession of the newly ceded territory. But there was great delay in the Spanish ratification. It did not take place until early in 1821. The ratified treaty was received by the President in February.

Civil War Period.—Before the Florida ordinance of secession was passed Florida troops seized, Jan. 6, 1861, the Chattahoochee arsenal, with 500,000 rounds of musket cartridges, 300,000 rifle cartridges, and 50,000 pounds of gunpowder. They also took possession of Fort Marion, at St. Augustine, formerly the Castle of St. Mark, which was built by the Spaniards more than 100 years before. It contained an arsenal. On the 15th they seized the United States coast-survey schooner *F. W. Dana* and appropriated it to their own use. The Chattahoochee arsenal was in charge of the courageous Sergeant Powell and three men. He said: "Five minutes ago I was in command of this arsenal, but in consequence of the weakness of my command I am obliged to surrender. . . . If I had force equal to, or half the strength of yours, I'll be d——d if you would have entered that gate until you had passed over my dead body. You see that I have but three men. I now consider myself a prisoner of war. Take my sword, Captain Jones."

Anxious to establish an independent empire on the borders of the Gulf of Mexico, Florida politicians met in convention early in January, 1861, at Tallahassee, the State capital. Colonel Petit was chosen chairman of the convention, and Bishop Rutledge invoked the blessing of the Almighty upon the acts they were about to perform. The members numbered sixty-nine, and about one-third of them were "Co-operationists" (see MISSISSIPPI). The legislature of Florida, fully prepared to co-operate with the convention, had convened at the same place on the 5th. On the 10th the convention adopted an ordinance of secession by a vote of 62 against 7. In its preamble it was declared that "all hopes of preserving the Union upon terms consistent with the safety and honor of the slaveholding States" had been "fully dissipated." It was further declared that by the ordinance Florida had withdrawn from the Union and become "a sovereign and independent nation." On the following day the ordinance was signed, while bells rang and cannon thundered to signify the popular joy. The news was received by the Florida Representatives in Congress at Washington, but, notwithstanding the State had withdrawn from the Union, they remained in their seats, for reasons given in a letter to Joseph Finnegan, written by Senator David L. Yulee from his desk in the Senate chamber. "It seemed to be the opinion," he said, "that if we left here, force, loan, and volunteer bills might be passed,

which would put Mr. Lincoln in immediate condition for hostilities; whereas, by remaining in our places until the 4th of March, it is thought we can keep the hands of Mr. Buchanan tied, and disable the Republicans from effecting any legislation which will strengthen the hands of the incoming administration." Senators from other States wrote similar letters under their official franks. The convention was addressed by L. W. Spratt, of South Carolina, an eminent advocate for reopening the African slave-trade. Delegates were appointed to a general convention to assemble at Montgomery, Ala., and other measures were taken to secure the sovereignty of Florida. The legislature authorized the emission of treasury notes to the amount of $500,000, and defined the crime of treason against the State to be, in one form, the holding of office under the national government in case of actual collision between the State and government troops, punishable with death. The governor of the State (Perry) had previously made arrangements to seize the United States forts, navy-yard, and other government property in Florida.

In the early part of the Civil War the national military and naval forces under General Wright and Commodore Dupont made easy conquests on the coast of Florida. In February, 1862, they captured Fort Clinch, on Amelia Island, which the Confederates had seized, and drove the Confederates from Fernandina. Other posts were speedily abandoned, and a flotilla of gunboats under Lieut. T. H. Stevens went up the St. John's River and captured Jacksonville, March 11. St. Augustine was taken possession of about the same time by Commander C. R. P. Rogers, and the alarmed Confederates abandoned Pensacola and the fortifications opposite Fort Pickens. Before the middle of April the whole Atlantic coast from Cape Hatteras to Perdido Bay, west of Fort Pickens (excepting Charleston and its vicinity), had been abandoned by the Confederates. The State authorities continued hostilities until the close of the war. On July 13, 1865, William Marvin was appointed provisional governor of the State, and on Oct. 28 a State convention held at Tallahassee repealed the ordinance of secession. The civil authority was transferred by the national government to the provisional State officers in January, 1866, and, under the reorganization measures of Congress, Florida was made a part of the 3d Military District in 1867. A new constitution was ratified by the people in May, 1868, and, after the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment to the national Constitution, on June 14, Florida was recognized as a reorganized State of the Union. The government was transferred to the State officers on July 4.

Florida, a Confederate cruiser. Captain J. D. Bulloch, formerly in the United States navy, acting for the Confederacy, arrived in Liverpool, June 4, 1861, built the *Alabama* (*q. v.*) and, among others, the *Florida*. This vessel, ostensibly built for an Italian trader, escaped from England in the spring of 1862 as the *Oreto*.

She reached Nassau, in the Bahamas, April 28, and not far away from there was suffered by the near-sighted officials to arm and equip herself as a man-of-war. Entering upon a cruise, her crew, including her captain, Maffitt, were attacked by yellow fever; on this account, and also because she found her armament imperfect, she sought Mobile, getting safely under shelter of Fort Morgan in September.

In January, 1863, the *Florida* emerged, and, eluding the blockaders, appeared once more at Nassau, with a fresh crew and with her defects remedied. It was just after Fredericksburg, and the British officials were very indulgent; while the people of the little town, who were prospering greatly because the blockade-runners made it their rendezvous, gave the *Florida* an ovation. She was allowed to stay thirty-six hours instead of twenty-four, to obtain coal for three months, and shortly after to obtain still more at Barbados—all of which was contrary to the instructions laid down in London by the foreign office. Well supplied now in every way, her depredations became important; she ranged from the latitude of New York to Bahia, in Brazil, capturing and burning many prizes in much frequented seas. One prize, the *Clarence*, was preserved and set out independently, having a history worth remarking. Receiving a small armament and a crew under Lieutenant Read, the *Clarence*, in June, 1863, after

Chancellorsville and when Vallandigham was stirring up Ohio, appeared close off the coast, and between the capes of Virginia and Portland, Maine, made several captures. Making a transfer to the *Tacony*, one of his prizes, a better ship, Read soon had ten more prizes. By still another transfer the bold sailors found themselves on the *Archer*, from which craft, in a daring boat-expedition into Portland harbor, they cut out the United States revenue - cutter *Cushing*. The activity of this handful of men much aggravated the depression of the North, now at its lowest point. But Read was presently captured by an expedition sent out from Portland, and consigned to Fort Warren.

In the summer of 1863 the *Florida* crossed the ocean to Brest, in France, whence six months later she appeared again refitted. Allowed to coal at various places, through negligence or favor, she patrolled the Atlantic until October, 1864, when her work came to a sudden end at Bahia, in Brazil. Here, in port, she encountered the Federal ship *Wachuset*, whose commander, Collins, paying no attention to neutral rights, captured her, October 7. This seizure, a gross violation of international law, Collins sought to justify as proper retaliation for breaches of the law of which Brazil had been guilty. It was, however, disowned by the government as an assumption of authority quite unwarranted. The *Florida* was ordered to be returned, but by an accident, the nature of which was never a mystery, she sank in Hampton Roads. See ALABAMA, CONFEDERATE STATES NAVY.

Flower, BENJAMIN ORANGE, author; born in Albion, Ill., Oct. 10, 1858; graduated at Kentucky University; edited *The American Sentinel*, subsequently merged into *The Arena*, of which he was editor till 1896. He was editor of *The New Time* and of *The Coming Age*, which also was merged into *The Arena*. He wrote *Essays on Social Problems; Whittier, Prophet, Seer, and Man*, etc.

Flower, FRANK ABIAL, author; born in Cottage, N. Y., May 11, 1854; removed to Wisconsin. His publications include *Old Abe, the Wisconsin War Eagle; Life of Matthew H. Carpenter; History of the Republican Party; Life of Edwin M. Stanton; Suppressed Colonial and Revolutionary History*, etc.

Flower, GEORGE, colonist; born in Hertfordshire, England, about 1780; came to the United States with Morris Birkbeck in 1817, and established an English colony in Albion, Ill. He was the author of a *History of the English Settlement in Edwards County, Illinois, founded in 1817 and 1818 by Morris Birkbeck and George Flower*. He died in Grayville, Ill., Jan. 15, 1862.

Flower, ROSWELL PETTIBONE, banker and philanthropist; born in Jefferson county, N. Y., Aug. 7, 1835; removed to New York City in 1869, where he was very successful in business. Elected to Congress, 1881; re-elected, 1888 and 1890; elected governor of New York in 1891. He died suddenly in Eastport, N. Y., May 12, 1899.

Flowers of the States. See STATE FLOWERS AND NICKNAMES.

Floyd, JOHN, statesman; born in Jefferson county, Va., in 1770; member of Congress in 1817–29; governor of Virginia in 1829–34; received the electoral vote of South Carolina in the Presidential election of 1832. He died in Sweet Springs, Va., Aug. 16, 1837.

Floyd, JOHN BUCHANAN, statesman; born in Blacksburg, Va., June 1, 1807; was admitted to the bar in 1828; practised law in Helena, Ark.; and in 1839 settled in Washington county, in his native State. He served in the Virginia legislature several terms, and was governor of the State in 1850–53. His father, John, had been governor of Virginia. In 1857 President Buchanan appointed him Secretary of War. As early as Dec. 29, 1859, according to the report of a Congressional committee, he had ordered the transfer of 65,000 percussion muskets, 40,000 muskets altered to percussion, and 10,000 percussion rifles from the armories at Springfield, Mass., and the arsenals at Watervliet, N. Y., and Watertown, Mass., to the arsenals at Fayetteville, N. C., Charleston, S. C., Augusta, Ga., Mount Vernon, Ala., and Baton Rouge, La., and these were distributed in the spring of 1860, before the meeting of the Democratic Convention at Charleston. Eleven days after the issuing of the above order, Jan. 9, 1860, Jefferson Davis introduced into the national Senate a bill "to authorize the

sale of public arms to the several States and Territories, and to regulate the appointment of superintendents of the national armories." Davis reported the bill from the military committee of the Senate, and, in calling it up on Feb. 21, said: "I should like the Senate to take up a little bill which I hope will excite no discussion. It is the bill to authorize the States to purchase arms from the

JOHN BUCHANAN FLOYD.

national armories. There are a number of volunteer companies wanting to purchase arms, but the States have not a sufficient supply." Senator Fessenden, of Maine, asked, Feb. 23, for an explanation of the reasons for such action. Davis replied that the Secretary of War had recommended an increase of appropriations for arming the militia, and as "the militia of the States were not militia of the United States," he thought it best for the volunteer companies of States to have arms that were uniform in case of war. Fessenden offered an amendment, March 26, that would deprive it of mischief, but it was lost, and the bill was passed by a strict party vote—twenty-nine Democrats against eighteen Republicans. It was smothered in the House of Representatives.

By a stretch of authority under an old act of Congress (1825), Floyd sold to the States and individuals in the South over 31,000 muskets, altered from flint to percussion, for $2.50 each. On Nov. 24, 1860, he sold 10,000 muskets to G. B. Lamar, of Georgia; and on the 16th he had sold 5,000 to Virginia. The Mobile *Advertiser* said, "During the past year 135,430 muskets have been quietly transferred from the Northern arsenal at Springfield alone to those of the Southern States. We are much obliged to Secretary Floyd for the foresight he has thus displayed in disarming the North and equipping the South for this emergency. There is no telling the quantity of arms and munitions which were sent South from other arsenals. There is no doubt but that every man in the South who can carry a gun can now be supplied from private or public sources." A Virginia historian of the war (Pollard) said, "It was safely estimated that the South entered upon the war with 150,000 small-arms of the most approved modern pattern and the best in the world." Only a few days before Floyd left his office as Secretary of War and fled to Virginia he attempted to supply the Southerners with heavy ordnance also. On Dec. 20, 1860, he ordered forty columbiads and four 32-pounders to be sent from the arsenal at Pittsburg to an unfinished fort on Ship Island, in the Gulf of Mexico; and seventy-one columbiads and seven 32-pounders to be sent from the same arsenal to an embryo fort at Galveston, Tex., which would not be ready for armament in five years. When Quartermaster Taliaferro (a Virginian) was about to send off these heavy guns, an immense public meeting of citizens, called by the mayor, was held, and the guns were retained. When Floyd fled from Washington his successor, Joseph Holt, of Kentucky, countermanded the order.

Indicted by the grand jury of the District of Columbia as being privy to the abstracting of $870,000 in bonds from the Department of the Interior, at the close of 1860 he fled to Virginia, when he was commissioned a general in the Confederate army. In that capacity he was driven from West Virginia by General Rosecrans. The night before the surrender of FORT DONELSON (*q. v.*) he stole away in the

darkness, and, being censured by the Confederate government, he never served in the army afterwards. He died near Abingdon, Va., Aug. 26, 1863.

Floyd, WILLIAM, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Brookhaven, Suffolk county, N. Y., Dec. 17, 1734; took an early and vigorous part in the Revolution; was a member of the New York committee of correspondence; and a member of the first Continental Congress in 1774, and until 1777. He was again a member after October, 1778. He was a State Senator in 1777. During the occupation of Long Island by the British, for nearly seven years, his family were in exile. He held the commission of brigadier-general, and commanded the Suffolk county militia in repelling an invasion of Long Island by the British. General Floyd was a member of the first national Congress, and as Presidential elector gave his vote for Jefferson in 1801. He died in Weston, Oneida co., N. Y., Aug. 4, 1821.

Folger, CHARLES JAMES, jurist; born in Nantucket, Mass., April 16, 1818; graduated at Geneva (now Hobart) College in 1836; studied law in Canandaigua, N. Y.; was admitted to the bar in Albany in 1839; and returned to Geneva to practise in 1840. He was judge of the Court of Common Pleas in Ontario county in 1843–46; county judge in 1852–56; State Senator in 1861–69; in 1869–70 was

CHARLES JAMES FOLGER.

United States assistant treasurer in New York City; in 1871 was elected associate judge of the New York Court of Appeals; and in 1880 became chief-justice. In November of the latter year he was re-elected to the Court of Appeals, but resigned in 1881 to accept the office of Secretary of the United States Treasury. In 1882 he was the Republican candidate for governor of New York, but was defeated by Grover Cleveland. He died in Geneva, N. Y., Sept. 4, 1884.

Folger, PETER, pioneer; born in England in 1617; emigrated to America with his father in 1635; settled in Martha's Vineyard in 1641; became a Baptist minister and was one of the commissioners to lay out Nantucket. In his poem entitled *A Looking-glass of the Times; or, The Former Spirit of New England Revived in this Generation,* he pleaded for liberty of conscience and toleration of all sects. He died in Nantucket, Mass., in 1690.

Folk, JOSEPH WINGATE, lawyer; born in Brownsville, Tenn., Oct. 28, 1869; son of Judge Henry B. Folk; was graduated at Vanderbilt University; admitted to the bar in 1890; practised in Brownsville till 1892; removed to St. Louis; was conspicuous in the settlement of the great street-car strike in 1900; became district attorney, 1904–05; made himself widely known by his successful prosecution of bribery cases against members of the municipal assembly in 1902–03; and was the Democratic governor of Missouri in 1905–09.

Folsom, GEORGE, historian; born in Kennebunk, Me., May 23, 1802; graduated at Harvard in 1822; practised law in Massachusetts until 1837, when he removed to New York, where he became an active member of the Historical Society. He was *chargé d'affaires* at The Hague in 1850–54. He was the author of *Sketches of Saco and Biddeford; Dutch Annals of New York; Address on the Discovery of Maine.* He died in Rome, Italy, March 27, 1869.

Food Adulteration. The United States of America, the greatest food-producing country in the world, is suffering from the adulteration of food products to an extent which it is difficult to comprehend. There is hardly an article of food that has not been adulterated—flour, butter, cheese, tea and coffee, syrups, spices of all kinds, extracts, bak-

ing powders; and yet, notwithstanding this great adulteration of food, every manufacturer will testify that he is perfectly willing to stop the adulteration if his competitors will stop, so that he can honestly compete with them.

This was especially true in the case of flour, and investigation in Congress showed that very dangerous and absolutely insoluble substances were being used to adulterate flour, and it became very well known that this fact impaired the credit of American flour in foreign countries. The adulteration became so extensive that the manufacturers who would not use adulteration appealed to Congress for protection, and the law as applied to oleomargarine and filled cheese was made applicable to mixed flour. At the present time it is believed that the mixing of flour has practically stopped in the United States. This not only assists the honest manufacturer of flour, but it protects the consumer, and at the same time gives us a reputation for manufacturing honest goods, and its influence has already been felt in our export trade to all the countries that buy our flour.

The committee on manufactures of the United States Senate has had presented to it letters that come from at least twelve or fifteen of the large cities of the world, all of the same tenor and general effect as the following:

"LONDON, *October* 12, 1899.

"DEAR SIRS,—Replying to yours of the 16th ultimo, with regard to the pure food law now in operation in your country, since this act was passed by Congress it has certainly restored confidence on this side, and in my opinion will materially assist your export trade.

"Yours faithfully,
"W. M. MEESON,
"Per JOHN STANMORE.

"*The Modern Miller*, St. Louis."

It is a well-known fact that our meat products have had a greater demand and better sale since the government undertook their inspection, and it is safe to say that nothing will more encourage our export trade than for the government of the United States to have some standard fixed, to which the food products of the United States must rise before they can be sold to our own people or our customers abroad.

It is believed by those who have given the matter careful attention that then we will encourage the honest manufacturer and protect him from dishonest competition, we shall protect the consumer, who will know in each instance what he is buying; we shall, by establishing a reputation for a high standard of food products, increase the demand for our goods all over the world, and also, what is more important to all, we shall raise the standard of the purity of goods that go into the human stomach, and, by better foods, make better citizens. "The destiny of the nations depends upon how they feed themselves." See PURE FOOD AND DRUG LAW.

Foote, ANDREW HULL, naval officer; born in New Haven, Conn., Sept. 12, 1806; entered the navy as midshipman in 1822; was flag-lieutenant of the Mediterranean

ANDREW HULL FOOTE.

squadron in 1833; and in 1838, as first lieutenant of the ship *John Adams*, under Commodore Read, he circumnavigated the globe, and took part in an attack on the pirates of Sumatra. He was one of the first to introduce (1841) the principle of total abstinence from intoxicating drinks into the United States navy; and on the *Cumberland* (1843–45) he delivered, on Sundays, extemporary sermons to his crew. He successfully engaged in the suppression of the slave-trade on the coast of Africa in 1849–52. In command of the China station in 1856, when the Chinese and English were at war, Foote exerted

himself to protect American property, and was fired upon by the Celestials. His demand for an apology was refused, and he stormed and captured four Chinese forts, composed of granite walls 7 feet thick and mounting 176 guns, with a loss of forty men. The Chinese garrison of 5,000 men lost 400 of their number killed and wounded. In the summer of 1861 Foote was made captain, and in September was appointed flag-officer of a flotilla of gunboats fitted out chiefly at Cairo, and commanded the naval expedition against FORTS HENRY and DONELSON (*qq. v.*) on the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, early in 1862, in co-operation with General Grant. In the attack on the latter he was severely wounded in the ankle by a fragment of a shell. Though suffering, he commanded the naval attack on ISLAND NUMBER TEN (*q. v.*). After its reduction he returned to his home at New Haven. He was promoted to rear-admiral in July, 1862; and in May, 1863, was ordered to take command of the South Atlantic squadron, but died while preparing in New York to leave for Charleston, June 26.

Foote, HENRY STUART, statesman; born in Fauquier county, Va., Sept. 20, 1800; graduated at Washington College in 1819, and admitted to the bar in 1822; removed to Mississippi in 1826, where he entered into active politics while practising his profession. In 1847 he was elected to the United States Senate, and in 1852 was elected governor of the State, his opponent being Jefferson Davis. Mr. Foote was a strong opponent of secession at the Southern Convention held at Knoxville, Tenn., in May, 1859, but when secession was an assured fact he accepted an election to the Confederate Congress, where he was active in his opposition to most of President Davis's measures. He wrote *Texas and the Texans* (2 volumes); *The War of the Rebellion, or Scylla and Charybdis; Personal Reminiscences,* etc. In his day he was a noted duellist. He died in Nashville, Tenn., May 20, 1880.

Foote, SAMUEL AUGUSTUS, legislator; born in Cheshire, Conn., Nov. 8, 1780; graduated at Yale College in 1797; engaged in mercantile business in New Haven; was for several years a member of the State legislature; was a Representative in Congress in 1819–21, 1823–25, and 1833–34; and was United States Senator in 1827–33. He resigned his seat in Congress in his last term on being elected governor of Connecticut. In 1844 he was a Presidential elector on the Clay and Frelinghuysen ticket. In 1829 he introduced a resolution in the Senate which was the occasion of the great debate between Robert Young Hayne, of South Carolina, and Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts. The resolution, which seemed a simple affair to elicit such a notable debate, was as follows:

"*Resolved,* that the committee on public lands be instructed to inquire and report the quantity of the public lands remaining unsold within each State and Territory, and whether it be expedient to limit, for a certain period, the sales of the public lands to such lands only as have heretofore been offered for sale, and are now subject to entry at the minimum price. And, also, whether the office of surveyor-general, and some of the land offices, may not be abolished without detriment to the public interest; or whether it be expedient to adopt measures to hasten the sales, and extend more rapidly the surveys of the public lands." For the debate in full see HAYNE, ROBERT YOUNG, and WEBSTER, DANIEL. Senator Foote died in Cheshire, Dec. 15, 1846.

Foote, WILLIAM HENRY, clergyman; born in Colchester, Conn., Dec. 20, 1794; graduated at Yale College in 1816; and became chaplain in the Confederate army. He was author of *Sketches, Historical and Biographical, of the Presbyterian Church in Virginia;* and *Sketches in North Carolina.* He died in Romney, W. Va., Nov. 18, 1869.

Foraker, JOSEPH BENSON, statesman; born near Rainsboro, O., July 5, 1846; graduated at Cornell in 1869 and admitted to the bar the same year. He enlisted in the 89th Ohio Regiment on July 14, 1862; was made sergeant August, 1862; received the commission of first lieutenant March 14, 1864; elected governor of Ohio in 1885 and 1887, and United States Senator in 1897–1909. In 1900 he was chairman of the committee on Pacific islands and Porto Rico, and a member of the committee on foreign relations.

Forbes, JOHN, military officer; born in

Fifeshire, Scotland, in 1710; was a physician, but, preferring military life, entered the British army, and was lieutenant-colonel of the Scots Greys in 1745. He was acting quartermaster-general under the Duke of Cumberland; and late in 1757 he came to America, with the rank of brigadier-general. He commanded the troops, 8,000 in number, against Fort Duquesne, which he named Pittsburg. He died in Philadelphia, March 11, 1759. See BOUQUET; DUQUESNE, FORT.

Force, MANNING FERGUSON, author; born in Washington, D. C., Dec. 17, 1824; graduated at Harvard in 1845; appointed major of the 20th Ohio Regiment in 1861; took part in the battles at Fort Donelson and Shiloh, and in the siege at Vicksburg. He was with Sherman in the Atlanta campaign and became a brevet major-general of volunteers. In 1889 he became commandant of the Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Home. Among his publications are *From Fort Henry to Corinth; The Mound-Builders; Prehistoric Man; The Vicksburg Campaign; Marching Across Carolina;* etc. He died near Sandusky, O., May 8, 1899.

Force, PETER, editor; born at Passaic Falls, N. J., Nov. 26, 1790; learned the printer's trade in New York City, and was president of the New York Typographical Society in 1812. In November, 1815, he settled in Washington, D. C., became a newspaper editor and publisher; and was mayor 1836–40. He was major-general of the militia of the District of Columbia in 1860, and was president of the National Institute. In 1833 he made a contract with the United States government for the preparation and publication of a documentary history of the American colonies covering the entire period of the Revolution, of which 9 volumes, folio, were published. He had gathered an immense collection of books, manuscripts, maps, and plans; and in 1867 his entire collection was purchased by the government for $100,000, and was transferred to the library of Congress. His great work is entitled *American Archives.* Mr. Force's first publication in Washington was the *National Calendar,* an annual volume of national statistics, which was published from 1820 to 1836. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 23, 1868.

Force Bill, THE. See KU-KLUX KLAN.

Ford, PAUL LEICESTER, author; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., in 1865; has published *The True George Washington; The Many-Sided Franklin,* etc.; and has edited the writings of Christopher Columbus, Thomas Jefferson, etc.; *Bibliography of Hamilton,* and *Essays on the Constitution.* He died in New York City, May 8, 1902.

Ford, WORTHINGTON CHAUNCEY; economist; born in Brooklyn, Feb. 16, 1858; connected with the Bureau of Statistics in the State and Treasury departments, and with the library of Congress. He wrote, *The Citizens' Manual; The Standard Silver Dollar,* etc.

Foreign Affairs. On Sept. 18, 1775, the Continental Congress appointed Messrs. Welling, Franklin, Livingston, Alsop, Deane, Dickinson, Langdon, McKean, and Ward a "secret committee" to contract for the importation from Europe of ammunition, small-arms, and cannon, and for such a purpose Silas Deane was soon sent to France. By a resolution of the Congress, April 17, 1777, the name of this committee was changed to "committee of foreign affairs," whose functions were like those of the present Secretary of State (see CABINET, PRESIDENT'S). Foreign intercourse was first established by law in 1790. President Washington, in his message, Jan. 8, 1790, suggested to Congress the propriety of providing for the employment and compensation of persons for carrying on intercourse with foreign nations. The House appointed a committee, Jan. 15, to prepare a bill to that effect, which was presented on the 21st. It passed the House on March 30. The two Houses could not agree upon the provisions of the bill, and a committee of conference was appointed; and finally the original bill, greatly modified, was passed, June 25, 1790. The act fixed the salary of ministers at foreign courts at $9,000 a year, and *chargés d'affaires* at $4,500. To the first ministers sent to Europe the Continental Congress guaranteed the payment of their expenses, with an additional compensation for their time and trouble. These allowances had been fixed at first at $11,111 annually. After the peace the Continental Congress had reduced the salary to $9,000, in consequence of which

Franklin insisted upon his recall, the sum being insufficient. When the bill of 1790 went before the Senate that body was only willing to vote a general sum for the expenses of foreign intercourse, and to leave the compensation of the respective ministers to the discretion of the President, urging that the difference in expenses at the various courts called for discrimination in the sums allowed. To this the House would not agree, and for a while both Houses insisted upon compliance with their respective views. Hence the delay in the passage of the bill. The act also made allowance for "outfits," which had been insisted upon by Jefferson when he was appointed to succeed Franklin.

Foreign Governments and the United States. From the time when the South Carolina ordinance of secession was passed there was observed in most of the European courts an unfriendliness of spirit towards the national government and a willingness to give its enemies encouragement in their revolutionary measures. The public journals in their interest were equally unfriendly in their utterances. When, early in February, the Confederate States government was organized, Europe seemed prepared to accept the hopeless dismemberment of the republic as an accomplished fact. This belief was strengthened by the despatches of most of the foreign ministers at Washington to their respective governments, who announced, early in February, the practical dissolution of the Union; and some affected to be amazed at the folly of Congress in legislating concerning the tariff and other national measures when the nation was hopelessly expiring. The Queen of England, in her speech from the throne, expressed a "heartfelt wish" that the difference that distracted our country "might be susceptible of a satisfactory adjustment." For these humane expressions she was reproved; and, finally, yielding to the importunities of her ministers, some of whom earnestly desired the downfall of the American republic, she issued (May 13, 1861) a proclamation of neutrality, by which a Confederate government, as existing, was acknowledged, and belligerent rights were accorded to the Confederates.

Already an understanding existed between the governments of England and France that they were to act together in regard to American affairs. They had even gone so far as to apprise other European governments of this understanding, with the expectation that they would concur with them and follow their example, whatever it might be. Thus, at the very outset of the Civil War, these two powerful governments had entered into a combination for arraying Europe on the side of the Confederates, and giving them moral if not material aid in their efforts to destroy the republic. The proclamation of Queen Victoria, made with unseemly haste before the minister of the new administration, CHARLES F. ADAMS (*q. v.*), could reach England, was followed by corresponding unfriendly action in the British Parliament. And in addition to affected indifference to the fate of the American nation, British legislators, orators, publicists, and journalists were lavish of causeless abuse, not only of the government, but of the people of the free-labor States who were loyal to the government. This abuse was often expressed in phrases so unmanly and ungenerous, and even coarse and vulgar at times, that high-minded Englishmen blushed for shame.

The Emperor of the French was more cautious and astute; but he followed Queen Victoria apparently in according belligerent rights to the Confederates by a decree (June 11, 1861), and, at the same time, entered into political combinations for the propagation of imperialism in North America, with a belief that the days of the great republic were numbered and its power to enforce the MONROE DOCTRINE (*q. v.*) had vanished. The Queen of Spain also hastened to proclaim the neutrality of her government, and to combine with France in replanting the seeds of monarchical institutions in the western hemisphere, now that the republic was apparently expiring. The King of Portugal also recognized the Confederates as belligerents.

But the more enlightened and wise monarch of Russia, who was about to strike off the shackles of almost 40,000,000 slaves in his own dominions, instructed his minister (July 29, 1861) to say to the imperial representative at Washington: "In every event the American nation may count upon the most cordial sympathy on

the part of our august master during the important crisis which it is passing through at present." The Russian Emperor kept his word; and the powers of western Europe, regarding him as a pronounced ally of the American Republic, acted with more circumspection. The attitude of foreign governments encouraged the Confederates to believe that recognition and aid would surely be furnished; and the government of England, by a negative policy, did give them all the aid and encouragement it prudently could, until it was seen that the Confederate cause was hopeless, when Lord John Russell addressed the head of the Confederacy in insulting terms. The astute publicist Count Gasparin, of France, writing in 1862, when considering the unprecedented precipitancy with which leading European powers recognized the Confederates as belligerents, said: "Instead of asking on which side were justice and liberty, we hastened to ask on which side were our interests; then, too, on which side were the best chances of success." He said England had a legal right to be neutral, but had no moral right to withhold her sympathies from a nation "struggling for its existence and universal justice against rebels intent on crimes against humanity." See ALABAMA CLAIMS.

Foresters, ANCIENT ORDER OF, a fraternal organization founded in 1745; established in the United States in 1836. The American branch is composed of 3 high courts and 420 subordinate courts, and has 41,388 members. Total membership throughout the world, 1,295,527, as stated by the Foresters' Directory, Dec. 31, 1909. The surplus funds of the society amounted to $46,876,710, and its assets aggregated over $85,000,000. Benefits disbursed since 1836, $147,000,000; benefits disbursed last fiscal year, over $5,000,000.

Foresters, INDEPENDENT ORDER OF, a fraternal organization founded in 1874; high courts, 55; subordinate courts, 4,840; members, 235,800; benefits disbursed since organization, $29,121,616; benefits disbursed last fiscal year, $2,738,758.

Foresters of America, a fraternal organization, not in affiliation with the above, with jurisdiction limited to the United States. Founded, 1864; reorganized, 1889; grand courts, 18; sub-courts, 1,890; members, 231,996; benefits disbursed since organization, $30,000,000; benefits disbursed last fiscal year, $1,449,057.

Forestry. For many years the cutting of valuable timber in various parts of the United States has been carried to such an extent that there has been quite a change in climatic conditions in various sections and the denudation of the virgin forests has been seriously threatened. For the purpose of checking the indiscriminate cutting of valuable timber and to provide a future supply of the principal woods required in the manufacturing industries the national government initiated its present great work of conservation by the appointment of Dr. Franklin B. Hough in 1876 as special agent in the Department of Agriculture. In 1881 a division of forestry was created in that department. In 1901 this division became the Bureau of Forestry, and in 1905, when the care of the national forests was given to this bureau, its name became the Forest Service. Previously the care of the national forests had been in the hands of the Department of the Interior.

A law authorizing the President to set apart forest reserves was passed in 1891, but no provision for their administration and use was made until 1897. Previous to 1905 the Bureau of Forestry merely gave expert advice on request to the Department of the Interior concerning the application of forestry to the forest reserves. The change of name from "forest reserves" to "national forests" was made in 1906 to correct the impression that the forests were, as "reserves," withdrawn from use. Since the Forest Service took charge of them the fundamental aim has been to open them to the widest use consistent with their proper protection. The reserves were set aside as follows: By President Harrison, 13,416,710 acres; by President Cleveland, 25,686,320 acres; by President McKinley, 7,050,089 acres; by President Roosevelt, 148,346,924 acres. During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1910, President Taft added to the national forests 453,517 acres and eliminated from them 2,037,645 acres, making their area at the close of the year 192,931,197 acres. The elimination threw out land which was found to be better suited for agricultural and other purposes than for

forestry. An act of Congress, passed in 1907, prohibits any additions by the President to the national forest area in Washington, Oregon, Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado.

Our forests now cover 550,000,000 acres, or about one-fourth of the United States. Forests publicly owned contain one-fifth of all timber standing. Forests privately owned contain at least four-fifths of the standing timber. The timber privately owned is not only four times that publicly owned, but it is generally more valuable. Forestry is now practised on 70 per cent. of the forests publicly owned and on less than 1 per cent. of the forests privately owned, or on only 18 per cent. of the total area of forests.

The original forests of the United States contained timber in quantity and variety far beyond that upon any other area of similar size in the world. They covered 850,000,000 acres with a stand of not less than 5,200,000,000 board feet of merchantable timber, according to present standards of use. There were five great forest regions—the northern, the southern, the central, the Rocky Mountain, and the Pacific. The present rate of cutting is three times the annual growth of the forests of the United States. The great pineries of the lake States are nearing exhaustion, and great inroads have been made upon the supply of valuable timber throughout all parts of the country. The heavy demands for timber have been rapidly pushing the great centres of lumber industry towards the South and the West. In consequence, the State of Washington has led for several years in lumber production, followed in order by Louisiana, Texas, Mississippi, Wisconsin, and Arkansas.

In 1910 the United States spent $3,752,316.21 for administration and protection; $598,835.65 for permanent improvements. In 1910 these sums were respectively $2,948,153.08 and $599,471.02. The receipts from all sources—grazing, timber, special uses—were $2,090,148.08 in 1909, and $1,807,270.06 in 1910. Under the law 25 per cent. of these gross receipts were paid to the States in which the national forests are located, to be expended for roads and schools. This amounted in 1910 to $506,194.84. The timber cut from the national forests in 1910 was 379,616,000 feet for sale, and 104,796,000 for free use. The average price for the timber sold on the stump was $2.44 per 1,000 board feet. The grazing receipts were for 1,497,570 cattle, horses, and hogs, and 7,648,952 sheep and goats.

As a means of educating the rising generation into a love for tree preservation, almost every State in the country now has its ARBOR DAY (*q. v.*), one day set apart in each year for the planting of young trees and for class-room instruction in the value of tree culture. See NATURAL RESOURCES, CONSERVATION OF.

Forman, ALLAN, editor; born in Mattituck, N. Y., Sept. 27, 1860; educated by private tutors and in private schools of Brooklyn; studied economics and English literature at Williams College; founded *The Brooklyn Advance* in 1881, *The Journalist* in 1884.

Forman, SAMUEL EAGLE, educator; born in Brentsville, Va., April 29, 1858; graduated at Dartmouth College, 1887; at Johns Hopkins University in 1897. Author of *First Lessons in Civics; Life and Writings of Jefferson; Philip Freneau; Advanced Civics; Higher Education in the District of Columbia*, etc.

Forney, JAMES, military officer; born in Lancaster, Pa., Jan. 17, 1844; educated at Georgetown University; second lieutenant U. S. Marine Corps, 1861; promoted captain, 1864; colonel, 1892; brigadier-general, 1904; and retired the same year. He saw service during the Civil War at the capture of New Orleans and the attacks on Vicksburg, Baton Rouge, and Galveston. During the Spanish War he was the commander of the camp where 1,700 officers and men of Admiral Cervera's fleet were confined.

Forney, JOHN WEISS, journalist; born in Lancaster, Pa., Sept. 30, 1817; purchased the Lancaster *Intelligencer* in 1837, and three years later the *Journal*, which papers he amalgamated under the name of the *Intelligencer and Journal*. He subsequently became part owner of the *Pennsylvania and Washington Union*. He was clerk of the national House of Representatives in 1851–55; started the *Press*, an independent Democratic journal, in Philadelphia, in 1857, and upon his re-election as clerk of the House of Representatives in 1859 he started the *Sunday Morning*

Chronicle in Washington. Among his publications are *Anecdotes of Public Men* (2 volumes); *Forty Years of American Journalism; A Centennial Commissioner in Europe*, etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 9, 1881.

Forrest, EDWIN, actor; born in Philadelphia, Pa., March 9, 1806. While still a boy he began performing female and juvenile parts, being especially remembered as Young Norval in Home's play of *Douglas*. His first appearance on the professional stage was on Nov. 27, 1820, at the Walnut Street Theatre, Philadelphia, in the title rôle of *Douglas*. After a long professional tour in the West, during which he undertook several Shakespearian characters, he filled engagements in Albany and Philadelphia, and then appeared as Othello at the Park Theatre, New York, in 1826. He met with remarkable success, owing to his superb form and presence and his natural genius. Not being satisfied with merely local fame, he played in all the large cities in the United States. His chief characters were Othello, Macbeth, Hamlet, Richard III., Metamora and Spartacus, the last of which he made exceedingly effective by his immense energy. In 1835 he went to England and the Continent, and played with much acceptance, making many warm friends, among them WILLIAM C. MACREADY (*q. v.*). In 1837 he again visited Europe and while there married Catharine, a daughter of John Sinclair, the widely known ballad-singer. After 1845 Mr. Forrest spent two more years in England, during which his friendship with Mr. Macready was broken. He had acted with great success in Virginius and other parts, but when he attempted to personate Macbeth he was hissed by the audience. This hissing was attributed to professional jealousy on the part of Macready. A few weeks after, when Macready appeared as Hamlet in Edinburgh, Forrest hissed him from a box in which he stood. On May 10, 1849, when Macready appeared as Macbeth in the Astor Place Theatre, in New York, the friends of Forrest interrupted the performance. The result was the Astor Place riot, in which twenty-two men were killed and thirty-six wounded. In 1858 Mr. Forrest announced his retirement from the stage, but appeared at intervals till 1871, when ill-health compelled him to retire permanently. He was a man of literary culture and accumulated a large library rich in Shakespeariana, which was destroyed by fire on Jan. 15, 1873. He left his Philadelphia home and a considerable portion of his large fortune for the establishment of an asylum for aged and indigent actors. He died in Philadelphia, Dec. 12, 1872.

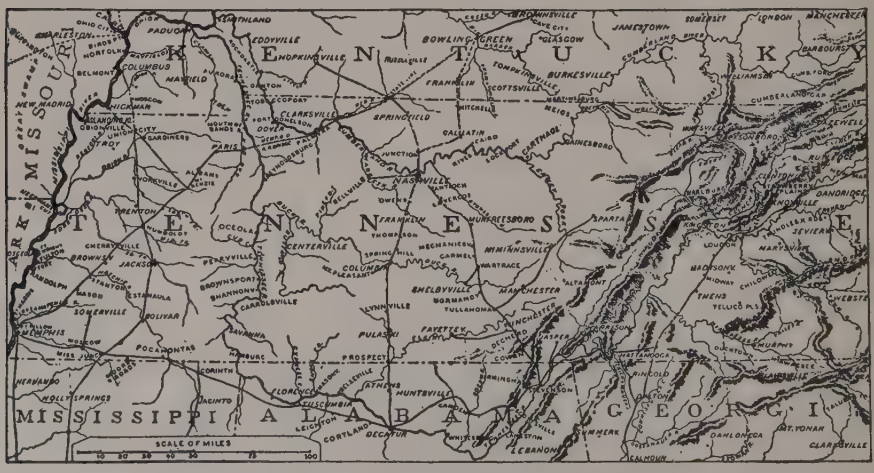
Forrest, NATHAN BEDFORD, military officer; born in Bedford county, Tenn., July 13, 1821; joined the Tennessee Mounted Rifles in June, 1861; and, in July following, raised and equipped a regiment of cavalry. By 1863 he had become a famous Confederate chief; and early in 1864 the sphere of his duties was enlarged, and their importance increased. He was acknowledged to be the most skilful and daring Confederate leader in the West. He made an extensive raid in Tennessee and Kentucky, with about 5,000 mounted men, in March and April, 1864. He had been skirmishing with Gen. W. S. Smith in northern Mississippi, and, sweeping rapidly across the Tennessee

NATHAN BEDFORD FORREST.

River into western Tennessee, rested a while at Jackson, and then (March 23) pushed on towards Kentucky. A part of his force captured Union City the next day, with the National garrison of 450 men. Forrest then pushed on to Paducah, on the Ohio River, with 3,000 men, and demanded the surrender of Fort Anderson

there, in which the little garrison of 700 men, under Colonel Hicks, had taken refuge. It was refused; and, after assailing the works furiously, and plundering and burning the town until midnight, he ceased the assault. Hearing of reinforcements for Hicks approaching, he retreated (March 27), with a loss of 300 men killed and wounded. The National loss was sixty killed and wounded. Forrest was chagrined by this failure, and proceeded to attack Fort Pillow, on the Mississippi, which he captured in April. Hearing of the march of General Sturgis from Memphis to intercept him, Forrest escaped from Tennessee into Mississippi. A few weeks later, troops sent out from Memphis to hunt up and capture him were defeated by him in a severe engagement at Gun Town (June 10), on the Mobile and Ohio Railway, and were driven back with great loss. On the 14th he was defeated near Tupelo, Miss. Not long afterwards, when Smith was in Mississippi with 10,000 men, the bold raider flanked him, and dashed into Memphis in broad daylight, at the head of 3,000 cavalry, in search of National officers, and escaped again into Mississippi. He died in Memphis, Tenn., Oct. 29, 1877.

His invasion of Tennessee, in 1864, was a remarkable performance. For several weeks he had been in northern Alabama, to prevent troops from the Mississippi joining Sherman. He crossed the Tennessee River, near Waterloo (Sept. 25, 1864), with a force of light cavalry, about 7,000 strong, and invested Athens. The post was surrendered about half an hour before sufficient reinforcements arrived to hold it. These, with the garrison, after a sharp conflict, became prisoners. Forrest then pushed on northward to Pulaski, in Tennessee, destroying the railway; but General Rousseau, at Pulaski, repulsed Forrest after brisk skirmishing several hours, when the raider made eastward, and struck the railway between Tullahoma and Decherd. He was confronted and menaced by National forces under Rousseau, Steedman, and Morgan, and withdrew before he had done much damage. At Fayetteville he divided his forces, giving 4,000 to Buford, his second in command. Buford attacked Athens (Oct. 2–3), which General Granger had regarrisoned with the 73d Indiana Regiment, and was repulsed. Forrest had pushed on to Columbia, on the Duck River, with 3,000 men, but did not attack, for he met Rousseau, with 4,000 men, coming down from Nashville. At the same time, Gen. C. C. Washburne was moving up the Tennessee on steamers, with 4,000 troops, 3,000 of them cavalry, to assist in capturing the invaders. Several other leaders of the National troops, under the command of General Thomas, who had then arrived at Nashville, joined in the hunt for Forrest. He saw his peril,



MAP OF SCENE OF SOME OF FORREST'S OPERATIONS.

and, paroling his prisoners (1,000), he destroyed 5 miles of the railway south from the Duck River, and escaped over the Tennessee (Oct. 6), at Bainbridge, with very little loss.

Forsyth, JAMES W., military officer; born in Ohio in 1835; graduated at West Point in 1856; promoted first lieutenant in 1861 and brigadier-general in 1865. He served in the Maryland, Richmond, and Shenandoah campaigns. He wrote *Expedition up the Yellowstone River in 1875.* He died in Columbus, O., Oct. 24, 1906.

Forsyth, JOHN, diplomatist; born in Fredericksburg, Va., Oct. 22, 1780; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1799. His parents removed to Georgia when he was quite young, and there he studied law, and was admitted to its practice about 1801. He was attorney-general of the State in 1808; member of Congress from 1813 to 1818, and from 1823 to 1827; United States Senator, and governor of Georgia from 1827 to 1829. Mr. Forsyth was United States minister to Spain in 1819–22, and negotiated the treaty that gave Florida to the United States. He opposed NULLIFICATION (*q. v.*) in South Carolina, favored Clay's compromise act of 1833, and was United States Secretary of State from 1835 till his death, which occurred Oct. 21, 1841.

Forsyth, JOHN, clergyman; born in Newburg, N. Y., in 1810; graduated at Rutgers in 1829; studied theology in Edinburgh University; ordained in 1834; Professor of Biblical Literature in Newburg, 1836; of Latin in Princeton in 1847–53; later again in Newburg, and occupied the Chair of English Literature in Rutgers in 1860–63. From 1871 to 1881 he was chaplain of West Point. Among his works are *Lives of the Early Governors of New York;* and *History of the Public Schools of Newburg.* He died in Newburg, Oct. 17, 1886.

Fort—FORTS. Special articles will be found on the various forts under their respective names. For instance: FORT CLINTON, see CLINTON; FORT SUMTER, see SUMTER, etc.

Fort Leavenworth War College. See LEAVENWORTH, FORT.

Fort Montgomery. See CLINTON, FORT.

Fort Washington. See CINCINNATI.

Fortifications. When the question of taking measures for the defence of the colonies was proposed in Congress, a discussion arose that was long and earnest, for many members yet hoped for reconciliation. On the very day that a British reinforcement at Boston, with Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne, entered that harbor, Duane, of New York, moved, in the committee of the whole, the opening a negotiation, in order to accommodate the unhappy disputes existing between Great Britain and the colonies, and that this be made a part of the petition to the King. But more determined spirits prevailed, and a compromise was reached late in May (25th), when directions were given to the Provincial Congress at New York to preserve the communications between that city and the country by fortifying posts at the upper end of Manhattan Island, near King's Bridge, and on each side of the Hudson River, on the Highlands. They were also directed to establish a fort at Lake George and sustain the position at Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain, which the "GREEN MOUNTAIN BOYS" (*q. v.*) and others had seized a fortnight before.

The first bill for the fortification of American harbors was reported in Congress, March 4, 1794, by a committee of one from each State, while the bill for the construction of a navy was under consideration. The act authorized the President to commence fortifications at Portland, Portsmouth, Gloucester, Salem, Boston, Newport, New London, New York, Philadelphia, Wilmington, Baltimore, Alexandria, Norfolk, Ocracoke Inlet, Cape Fear River, Georgetown, Charleston, Savannah, and St. Mary's. Annapolis was added by a subsequent act. For this purpose only $136,000 were appropriated. The President was authorized to purchase 200 cannon for the armament of the new fortifications, and to provide 150 extra gun-carriages, with 250 tons of cannon balls, for which purpose $96,000 were appropriated. Another act appropriated $81,000 for the establishment of arsenals and armories in addition to those at Springfield and Carlisle, and $340,000 for the purchase of arms and stores. The exportation of arms was prohibited for

one year, and all arms imported during the next two years were to come in free of duty.

In recent years the national government has been giving a larger degree of attention to the question of coast defences, and a board of ordnance and fortification has in charge the erection of new works, the strengthening of old ones, and the provision of the most approved ordnance for the protection of the principal coast cities of the country. The plans under which the board has been working will require many years' time, even with unusually liberal appropriations by Congress, to complete. After the United States declared war against Spain in 1898 one of the first works of importance was the preparation of the principal harbors of the Atlantic coast to be able to successfully resist any hostile naval attacks. For the adequate defence of the coast not only were the existing fortifications at once put on a war footing and supplied with the latest style of ordnance, but the harbors of the cities that were likely to invite attack were reinforced by the most complete system of mines and torpedoes. In this work the navy also bore an important share, as the exceptionally swift cruisers *Columbia* and *Minneapolis* were kept constantly patrolling at sea for many weeks, while a special fleet of smaller vessels aided them in keeping watch nearer shore for the two Spanish fleets that were expected to menace the coast from Maine to Florida. Similar precautions were taken also at San Francisco. For a list of the forts of the United States see MILITARY POSTS.

Forts Clinton and Montgomery. See CLINTON, FORT.

Forty, FORT, a protective work erected by the Connecticut settlers in Wyoming Valley, Pa., in 1769. It was the rendezvous of the Americans when the valley was invaded by Tories and Indians on June 3, 1778, and was surrendered on the following day. See WYOMING, MASSACRE OF.

"Forty-five." See "NINETY-TWO AND FORTY-FIVE."

Forward, WALTER, statesman; born in Connecticut in 1786; removed to Pittsburg, where he was editor of the *Tree of Liberty,* a Democratic paper; admitted to the bar of Pennsylvania in 1806; elected to Congress in 1822; appointed first comptroller of the United States Treasury in 1841; Secretary of the United States Treasury in 1841; elected judge of the district court of Alleghany county, Pa., in 1851. He died in Pittsburg, Nov. 24, 1852.

Forwood, WILLIAM STUMP, physician; born in Harford county, Md., Jan. 27, 1830; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1854; began the practice of medicine in Darlington, Md. He was the author of *The History of the Passage of General Lafayette with his Army through Harford County in 1781; The History of Harford County;* and *An Historical Narrative of the Mammoth Cave of Kentucky.* He died in 1892.

Foster, CHARLES, financier; born in Seneca county, O., April 12, 1828; was first elected to Congress as a Republican in 1870; elected governor of Ohio in 1879 and 1881; was appointed Secretary of the United States Treasury in February, 1891. He was concerned in a number of financial enterprises in which he acquired a large fortune, but in 1893 was obliged to make an assignment of his vast interests for the benefit of his creditors. He died in Springfield, O., Jan. 9, 1904.

Foster, JOHN GRAY, military officer; born in Whitefield, N. H., May 27, 1823; graduated at West Point in 1846, entering the engineer corps. He served in the war with Mexico and was brevetted captain for meritorious services. For two years (1855–57) he was Professor of Engineering at West Point; promoted to captain in July, 1860; major in March, 1863; and lieutenant-colonel in 1867. He was one of the garrison of Fort Sumter during the siege, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers in October, 1861. He took a leading part in the capture of Roanoke Island, early in 1862, and of Newbern, N. C.; was promoted to major-general of volunteers, and became commander of the Department of North Carolina, and defended that region with skill. In July, 1863, he was made commander of the Department of Virginia and North Carolina, with his headquarters at Fort Monroe. He was afterwards in command of the Department of Ohio, of which he was relieved on account of wounds in

January, 1864. He was brevetted major-general in the regular army for services during the Civil War in 1865. He died in Nashua, N. H., Sept. 2, 1874.

Foster, JOHN WATSON, diplomatist; born in Pike county, Ind., March 2, 1836; graduated at the Indiana State University in 1855; studied at Harvard Law School. During the Civil War he served in the Union army, reaching the rank of colonel of volunteers. He was minister to Mexico in 1837–80, and to Russia in 1880–81. In 1883–85 he was minister to Spain; and in 1891 was a special commissioner to negotiate reciprocity treaties with Spain, Germany, Brazil, and the West Indies. He was appointed United States Secretary of State in 1892 and served till 1893, when he became the agent for the United States before the Bering Sea arbitration tribunal at Paris. In 1895, on the invitation of the Emperor of China, he participated in the peace negotiations with Japan; in 1897 was a special United States commissioner to Great Britain and Russia; in 1898 a member of the ANGLO-AMERICAN COMMISSION (*q. v.*); in 1903 the agent of the United States before the Alaskan Boundary Tribunal in London; in 1907 the representative of China at the Second Hague Conference. Author of *A Century of American Diplomacy*, a brief review of the foreign relations of the United States from 1776 to 1876; *American Diplomacy in the Orient; Arbitration and The Hague Court; The Practice of Diplomacy; Diplomatic Memoirs*, etc. See BERING SEA ARBITRATION.

Foster, MURPHY JAMES, lawyer; born in Franklin, La., Jan. 12, 1849; was graduated at Cumberland University, Lebanon, Tenn., in 1870, and at the law school of Tulane University in 1871. He was a member of the Louisiana Senate in 1879, and was president *pro tem.* in 1880–90. He was the leader in the long and successful fight against the Louisiana Lottery Company, while in the State Senate; was nominated by the Anti-lottery Convention for governor in 1892 and was elected; and was re-elected in 1896. In 1900 he was unanimously elected to the United States Senate as a Democrat; re-elected, 1907.

Foster, ROGER, lawyer; born in Worcester, Mass., in 1857; was graduated at Yale College in 1878, and at the law school of Columbia University in 1880; admitted to the New York bar in the same year; and as tenement-house commissioner drafted the tenement-house laws of 1895. Among his publications are *A Treatise on the Federal Judiciary Acts of 1875 and 1887; A Treatise on Federal Practice; Commentaries on the Constitution; A Treatise on the Income Tax of 1894*, etc.

Foster, WILLIAM EATON, historian; born in Brattleboro, Vt., June 2, 1851; librarian of Providence Public Library from 1877. Author of *The Civil Service Reform Movement; The Literature of Civil Service Reform in the United States; Town Government in Rhode Island; Stephen Hopkins, a Rhode Island Statesman; The Point of View in History*, etc.

Fouchet, JEAN ANTOINE JOSEPH, BARON, diplomatist; born in St. Quentin, France, in 1763; was appointed French ambassador to the United States in 1794–95. Here his behavior was less offensive than that of "Citizen" Genet, but it was not satisfactory, and he was succeeded by Adet, a more prudent man. After he left the United States, the French Directory appointed him a commissioner to Santo Domingo, which he declined. Under Bonaparte he was prefect of Var, and in 1805 he was the same of Ain. He remained in Italy until the French evacuated it in 1814. On Napoleon's return from Elba, Fouchet was made prefect of the Gironde. The date of his death is not known.

Foundation for the Promotion of Industrial Peace, an institution created and endowed by President Roosevelt in 1907 with the Nobel peace prize of $40,000, awarded him the previous year (in recognition of his effort to bring about a termination of the Russo-Japanese War), for the purpose of bringing together representatives of capital and labor for a better understanding of their mutual relations.

Founders and Patriots of America, ORDER OF, a patriotic organization incorporated March 18, 1896. The object of the order is "to bring together and associate congenial men whose ancestors struggled together for life and liberty, home and happiness, in the land when it was a new and unknown country, and whose line of descent from them comes through patriots who sustained the colo-

nies in the struggle for independence in the Revolutionary War; to teach reverent regard for the names and history, character and perseverance, deeds and heroism, of the founders of this country and their patriotic descendants; to inculcate patriotism; to discover, collect, and preserve records, documents, manuscripts, monuments, and history relating to the first colonists and their ancestors and their descendants; and to commemorate and celebrate events in the history of the colonies of the republic." The officers in 1911 were: Governor-general, Maj.-Gen. Frederick Dent Grant; deputy governor-general, Herman Vandenburg Ames; chaplain-general, Rev. Henry Hallam Tweedy; secretary-general, Louis Annin Ames, 99 Fulton Street, New York City; treasurer-general, Arthur Julius Birdseye; attorney-general, Edwin Jacquett Sellers; registrar-general, Clarence Ettienne Leonard; genealogist-general, Col. G. C. Treadwell; historian-general, G. H. Richards.

Fountain of Youth, a fabled fountain, the discovery of which was one of the objects of the exploration of Florida in 1512 by PONCE DE LEON (*q. v.*). The water of this fountain was supposed to constitute an elixir, the drinking of which would greatly prolong human life.

Four Mile Strip, a strip of land 4 miles wide on each side of the Niagara River, extending from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario, which was ceded to the British government in 1764 by a council of Indians representing Iroquois, Ottawas, Ojibways, Wyandottes, and others.

Fourier, CHARLES, socialist; born in Bensançon, France, April 7, 1772; devised a social system known as Fourierism. He died in Paris, Oct. 10, 1837. See BROOK FARM ASSOCIATION.

Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. See CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Fourth of July, the American natal day, so designated because of the DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE (*q. v.*) on July 4, 1776; also popularly known as Independence Day. See ADAMS, JOHN.

Fowle, DANIEL, printer; born in Charlestown, Mass., in 1715; learned the art of printing, and began business in Boston in 1740, where, from 1748 to 1750, he was joint partner with Gamaliel Rogers in publishing the *Independent Advertiser.* They had published the *American Magazine* from 1743 to 1746, and were the first in America to print the New Testament. Mr. Fowle settled in Portsmouth, N. H.; and there, in October, 1756, began the publication of the *New Hampshire Gazette.* He died in Portsmouth, N. H., in June, 1787.

Fowler, SAMUEL PAGE, antiquarian; born in Danvers, Mass., April 22, 1800; aided in founding the Essex Institute. He was the author of articles in the *Historical Collections of the Essex Institute; Life and Character of the Rev. Samuel Parris, of Salem Village, and his Connection with the Witchcraft Delusion of 1692,* etc.

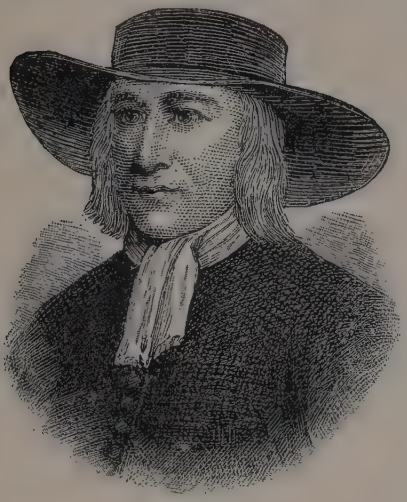
Fowler, WILLIAM CHAUNCEY, author; born in Killingworth, Conn., Sept. 1, 1793; graduated at Yale in 1816; became pastor of the Congregational Church in Greenfield, Mass., in 1825. He published many school-books and also *The Sectional Controversy, or Passages in the Political History of the United States; History of Durham; Local Law in Massachusetts and Connecticut;* genealogical works on the Fowler and Chauncey families, etc. He died in Durham, Conn., Jan. 15, 1881.

Fowler, WILLIAM WORTHINGTON, author; born in Middlebury, Vt., June 24, 1833; graduated at Amherst College in 1854; admitted to the bar in 1857; and began practice in New York City. His publications include *Ten Years in Wall Street; Life and Adventures of Benjamin F. Moneypenny; Women on the American Frontier; Twenty Years of Inside Life in Wall Street;* etc. He died in 1881.

Fowltown, BATTLE OF, an engagement in 1817 fought by National troops under Gen. E. P. Gaines and hostile Creek Indians during the Seminole War in Florida. The Indians had committed depredations on the frontier settlements of Georgia and Alabama. General Gaines followed them up, and on the refusal of the inhabitants of Fowltown to surrender the ringleaders he took and destroyed the Indian village, for which the Indians soon afterwards retaliated by capturing a boat conveying supplies for Fort Scott up the Apalachicola River, and killing thirty-four men and

a number of women. This event led General Jackson to take the field in person against the Indians early in January, 1818.

Fox, GEORGE, founder of the Society of Friends, or Quakers; born in Drayton, Leicestershire, England, in July, 1624. His father, a Presbyterian, was too poor to give his son an education beyond reading and writing. The son, who



GEORGE FOX.

was grave and contemplative in temperament, was apprenticed to a shoemaker, and made the Scriptures his constant study. The doctrines he afterwards taught were gradually fashioned in his mind, and believing himself to be called to disseminate them, he abandoned his trade at the age of nineteen, and began his spiritual work, leading a wandering life for some years, living in the woods, and practising rigid self-denial. He first appeared as a preacher at Manchester, in 1648, and he was imprisoned as a disturber of the peace. Then he travelled over England, meeting the same fate everywhere, but gaining many followers. He warmly advocated all the Christian virtues, simplicity in worship, and in manner of living. Brought before a justice at Derby, in 1650, he told the magistrate to "quake before the Lord," and thereafter he and his sect were called Quakers. Taken before Cromwell, in London, that ruler not only released him, but declared his doctrines were salutary, and he afterwards protected him from persecution; but after the Restoration he and his followers were dreadfully persecuted by the Stuarts. He married the widow of a Welsh judge in 1669, and in 1672 he came to America, and preached in Maryland, Long Island, and New Jersey, visiting Friends wherever they were seated. Fox afterwards visited Holland and parts of Germany. His writings upon the subject of his peculiar doctrine—that the "light of Christ within is given by God as a gift of salvation"—occupied, when first published, 3 folio volumes. He died in London, Jan. 13, 1691.

When the founder of the Society of Friends visited New England in 1672, being more discreet than others of his sect, he went only to Rhode Island, avoiding Connecticut and Massachusetts. Roger Williams, who denied the pretensions to spiritual enlightenment, challenged Fox to disputation. Before the challenge was received, Fox had departed, but three of his disciples at Newport accepted it. Williams went there in an open boat, 30 miles from Providence, and, though over seventy years of age, rowed the vessel himself. There was a three days' disputation, which at times was a tumultuous quarrel. Williams published an account of it, with the title of *George Fox Digged out of his Burrowes;* to which Fox replied in a pamphlet entitled, *A New England Firebrand Quenched.* Neither was sparing in sharp epithets.

Fox, GUSTAVUS VASA, naval officer; born in Saugus, Mass., June 13, 1821; appointed to the United States navy Jan. 12, 1838; resigned with the rank of lieutenant July 10, 1856; was sent to Fort Sumter for the purpose of opening communication with Major Anderson. Before the expedition reached Charleston the Confederates had opened fire on Fort Sumter and forced Major Anderson to surrender. He was subsequently appointed assistant Secretary of the Navy, and held this post until the end of the war. He planned operations of the navy, including the capture of New Orleans. He was sent by the United States government on the monitor *Miantonomoh* to convey the congratula-

tions of the United States Congress to Alexander II. on his escape from assassination. This was the longest voyage that had ever been made by a monitor. His visit to Russia materially aided the acquisition of Alaska by the United States government. He died in New York City, Oct. 29, 1883.

Fox Indians, a tribe of Algonquian Indians first found by the whites in Wisconsin. They were driven south of the Wisconsin River by the Ojibwas and the French, and there incorporated with the Sac Indians. In 1905 there were 82 Sac and Fox of Missouri at the Pottawatomie agency in Kansas, and 345 of the Sac and Fox of Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Iowa. Since 1850 the two tribes have been enumerated together. See SAC AND FOX INDIANS.

France, EARLY RELATIONS WITH. The serious quarrel between the English and French colonists in America, which was begun in 1754 and continued by collisions of armed men, was taken up by the home governments in 1755. The French had offered to treat for reconciliation, but the terms were not acceptable to the English; and when the offer was refused, the French fitted out privateers and threatened to invade England with a fleet and army collected at Brest. To confront this menace, a body of German troops were introduced into England; and, to induce the colonies to make fresh efforts against the French in America, the Parliament voted a reimbursement of $775,000 to those involved on account of Dieskau's invasion. Provision was also made for enlisting a royal American regiment, composed of four battalions of 1,000 men each. All hopes of reconciliation being past, England formally declared war against France (May, 18, 1756), to which the latter shortly after responded.

On Aug. 15, 1761, Choiseul, the able French minister, brought about, by treaty, a firm alliance between France and Spain, a family compact that eventually proved beneficial to the English-American colonies. It was designed to unite all the branches of the House of Bourbon as a counterpoise to the maritime ascendency of England. It was agreed that at the conclusion of the then existing war France and Spain, in the whole extent of their dominions, were to stand as one state towards foreign powers. This treaty secured to the American colonies, in advance, the aid of Charles III. of Spain. A special convention was concluded the same day between France and Spain, by which the latter agreed to declare war against England unless peace between France and England should be concluded before May, 1762. Choiseul covenanted with Spain that Portugal should be compelled, and Savoy, Holland, and Denmark should be invited, to join in a federative union "for the common advantage of all maritime powers." Pitt proposed to declare war against Spain, but was outvoted, and resigned (Oct. 5, 1761).

The French government was pleased when the breach between Great Britain and her colonies began, and sought to widen it. England had stripped France of her possessions in America, and France sought to dismember the British Empire, and cause it a greater loss, by the achievement of the independence of the colonies. Arthur Lee, of Virginia, being in London soon after the breaking out of hostilities, made such representations to the French ambassador there that the Count de Vergennes, the French minister of foreign affairs, sent PIERRE AUGUSTIN CARON DE BEAUMARCHAIS (*q. v.*), a well-known political intriguer and courtier, to concert measures with Lee for sending to the Americans arms and military stores to the amount of $200,000. An open breach with the English was not then desirable, and the French minister, to cover up the transaction, gave it a mercantile feature, by having Beaumarchais transmit the supplies under the fictitious firm-name of Rodrique Hortales & Co. Before the matter was completed, SILAS DEANE (*q. v.*), sent by the committee of secret correspondence, arrived in Paris (May, 1776), in the disguise of a private merchant. He was received kindly by Vergennes, and introduced to Beaumarchais. It was agreed that Hortales & Co. should send the supplies by way of the West Indies, and that Congress should pay for them in tobacco and other American products. When the arrangement was completed, Beaumarchais despatched vessels from time to time, with valuable cargoes, including 200 cannon and mortars, and a supply of small

arms from the French arsenals; also, 4,000 tents, and clothing for 30,000 men. Deane was suspected of some secret connection with the French government, and was closely watched by British agents; and the French Court would trust none of its secrets to the Congress, for its most private deliberations (the sessions were always private) leaked out, and became known to the British ministry. The business was done by the secret committee. Soon after the Declaration of Independence, a plan of treaties with foreign nations had been reported by a committee and accepted by Congress, and Franklin, Deane, and Jefferson were appointed (Sept. 28, 1776) commissioners to the Court of France. Jefferson declined the appointment, and Arthur Lee was substituted. They were directed to live in a style "to support the dignity of their public character," and provision was made for their maintenance. Franklin arrived at Paris, and was joined by Deane and Lee in December. The commissioners were courteously received by Vergennes, privately, but without any recognition of their diplomatic character. France was secretly strengthening her navy, and preparing for the inevitable war which her aid to the revolted colonies would produce. The commissioners received from the French government a quarterly allowance of $400,000, to be repaid by the Congress, with which they purchased arms and supplies for troops, and fitted out armed vessels—a business chiefly performed by Deane, who had been a merchant, and managed the transactions with Beaumarchais. Out of these transactions grew much embarrassment, chiefly on account of the misrepresentations of Arthur Lee, which led Congress to believe that the supplies forwarded by Beaumarchais were gratuities of the French monarch. This belief prevailed until the close of 1778, when Franklin, on inquiry of Vergennes about the matter, was informed that the King had furnished nothing; he simply permitted Beaumarchais to be provided with articles from the arsenals upon condition of replacing them. The matter becoming a public question, the startled Congress, unwilling to compromise the French Court, declared (January, 1779) that they "had never received any species of military stores as a present from the Court of France." Then Beaumarchais claimed payment from the Congress for every article he had forwarded. This claim caused a lawsuit that lasted about fifty years. It was settled in 1835, by the payment by the United States government to the heirs of Beaumarchais of over $200,000.

On May 4, 1778, the Continental Congress unanimously ratified the treaties with France, and expressed their grateful acknowledgments to its King for his "magnanimous and disinterested conduct." This treaty and this ratification "buried the hatchet" that had so long been active between the French and the English colonies in America. The latter regarded all Frenchmen as their friends, and proclaimed Louis XVI. the "protector of the rights of mankind."

On the evening of April 12, 1779, the representatives of France and Spain signed a convention for an invasion of England, in which the Americans were considered and concerned. By its terms France bound herself to undertake the invasion of Great Britain and Ireland; and, if the British could be driven from Newfoundland, the fisheries were to be shared with Spain. France promised to use every effort to recover for Spain Minorca, Pensacola, and Mobile, the Bay of Honduras, and the coast of Campeachy; and the two courts agreed not to grant peace nor truce, nor suspension of hostilities, until Gibraltar should be restored to Spain. Spain was left free to exact from the United States, as the price of her friendship, a renunciation of every part of the basin of the St. Lawrence and the Lakes, of the navigation of the Mississippi, and of all the territory between that river and the Alleghany Mountains. This modification of the treaty of France with the United States gave the latter the right to make peace whenever Great Britain should recognize their independence. So these two Bourbon dynasties plotted to exclude the Americans from a region essential to them as members of an independent republic. But a new power appeared in the West to frustrate their designs, which was prefigured by an expedition under a hardy son of Virginia. See CLARK, GEORGE ROGERS.

In 1797 the consul-general of the United States in France complained of the condemnation of American vessels unjustly. Merlin, the French minister of justice, made a reply in which he openly avowed the intention to humble the Americans and compel Congress to conform to the wishes of France by depredations upon American commerce. "Let your government," wrote this minister of justice (who was also a speculator in privateers), "return to a sense of what is due to itself and its true friends, become just and grateful, and let it break the incomprehensible treaty which it has concluded with our most implacable enemies, and then the French Republic will cease to take advantage of this treaty, which favors England at its expense, and no appeals will then, I can assure you, be made to any tribunal against injustice."

In March, 1798, President Adams, in a special message, asked Congress to make provision for the war with France that seemed impending. It was promptly complied with. A provisional army of 20,000 regular soldiers was voted, and provision was made for the employment of volunteers as well as militia. Provision was also made for a national navy, and the office of Secretary of the Navy was created (see NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES), and the incumbent was made a member of the cabinet. Party spirit disappeared in the national legislature in a degree, and a war spirit everywhere prevailed. There were a few members of Congress who made the honor of the nation subservient to their partisanship. They opposed a war with France on any account; and so unpopular did they become that some of the most obnoxious, particularly from Virginia, sought personal safety in flight, under the pretext of needed attention to private affairs.

Ever since Minister Adet's proclamation the Democrats, or friends of the French, had worn the tricolored cockade. When, in the spring of 1798, President Adams took strong ground against France, a decided war spirit was aroused throughout the country; addresses poured in on the President; and everywhere were seen evidences of a reflex of opinion which sustained the President. In Philadelphia, an "Address to the President," signed by 5,000 citizens, was presented to Adams; and this was followed by an address by the young men of the city, who went in a body to deliver it, many of them wearing black cockades, the same which were worn in the American army during the Revolution. This was done in the way of defiance to the tricolored cockades. From this circumstance was derived the term, so familiar to politicians of that period, of "Black Cockade Federalists." It became, in time, a term of reproach, and the wearers were exposed to personal attacks.

In July, 1798, the American Congress declared the treaties made between the United States and France (Feb. 6, 1778) at an end, and authorized American vessels of war to capture French cruisers. A marine corps was organized, and thirty cruisers were provided for. The frigates *United States*, *Constitution*, and *Constellation*, already built, were soon made ready for sea under such commanders as Dale, Barry, Decatur the elder, Truxton, Nicholson, and Phillips. Decatur soon captured a French corsair (April, 1798). So many American armed vessels in West India waters, in the summer and autumn of 1798, astonished the British and French authorities there. At the close of that year the American navy consisted of twenty-three vessels, with a total of 446 guns. It was much strengthened during the year 1799 by the launching and putting into commission several new ships, and victories over the French on the ocean were gained. In February, 1799, Commodore Truxton, in the *Constellation*, captured the French frigate *L'Insurgente;* and in February, 1800, he gained a victory over the French frigate *La Vengeance.* The convention at Paris brought about peace between the two nations, and the navy of the United States was called to another field of action.

While war with France seemed inevitable, and was actually occurring on the ocean, a change in the government of that country occurred, which averted from the United States the calamity of war. For a long time the quarrels of political factions had distracted France. THE DIRECTORY (*q. v.*) had become very unpopular, and the excitable people were ripe for another revolution. Napoleon

CAPTURE OF LA VENGEANCE BY CONSTELLATION.

Bonaparte was then at the head of an army in the East. His brothers informed him of the state of affairs at home, and he suddenly appeared in Paris with a few followers, where he was hailed as the good genius of the republic. With his brother Lucien, then president of the Council of Five Hundred, and the Abbé Sieyès, one of the Directory, and of great influence in the Council of the Ancients, he conspired for the overthrow of the government and the establishment of a new one. Sieyès induced the Council of the Ancients to place Bonaparte in command of the military of Paris, Nov. 9, 1799. Then Sieyès and two other members of the Directory resigned, leaving France without an executive authority, and Bonaparte with its strong arm, the military, firmly in his grasp. The Council of the Ancients, deceived by a trick, assembled at St. Cloud the next day. Bonaparte appeared before them to justify his conduct. Perceiving their enmity, he threatened them with arrest by the military if they should decide against him. Meanwhile Lucien had read the letters of resignation of the three directors to the Council of Five Hundred. A scene of terrible excitement occurred. There were shouts of "No Cromwell! no dictator! the constitution forever!" Bonaparte entered that chamber

with four grenadiers, and attempted to speak, but was interrupted by cries and execrations. The members seemed about to offer personal violence to the bold soldier, when a body of troops rushed in and bore him off. A motion was made for his outlawry, which Lucien refused to put, and left the chair. He went out and addressed the soldiers. At the conclusion of his speech, Murat entered with a body of armed men, and ordered the council to disperse. The members replied with defiant shouts and execrations. The drums were ordered to be beaten; the soldiers levelled their muskets, when all but about fifty of the Council escaped by the windows. These, with the Ancients, passed a decree making Sieyès, Bonaparte, and Ducros provisional consuls. In December, Bonaparte was made first consul, or supreme ruler, for life. New American envoys had just reached Paris at this crisis, and very soon Bonaparte concluded an amicable settlement of all difficulties between the two nations. Peace was established; the envoys reand paused; and, through letters to Pinchon (August and September, 1798), information was conveyed to the United States government that the Directory were ready to receive advances from the former for entering into negotiations. Anxious for peace, President Adams, without consulting his cabinet or the national dignity, nominated to the Senate William Vans Murray (then United States diplomatic agent at The Hague) as minister plenipotentiary to France. This was a concession to the Directory which neither Congress nor the people approved, and the Senate refused to ratify the nomination. This advance, after unatoned insults from the Directory, seemed like cowardly cringing before a half-relenting tyrant. After a while the President consented to the appointment of three envoys extraordinary, of which Murray should be one, to settle all disputes between the two governments. Oliver Ellsworth and William R. Davie were chosen to join Murray. The latter did not proceed to Europe until assur-

PATRIAE . PATRES . FILIO . DIGNO .
THOMAS TRUXTUN .
The U.S. Frigate Constellation of 38 guns, pursues, attacks, and vanquishes the French Ship La Vengeance, of 54 guns, 1st of February 1800 .
By vote of Congress to Thomas Truxtun

MEDAL AWARDED BY CONGRESS IN COMMEMORATION OF THE CAPTURE OF LA VENGEANCE BY THE CONSTELLATION.

turned home; and the provisional army of the United States which had been organized was disbanded.

Circumstances humbled the pride of the French Directory, and the wily Talleyrand began to think of reconciliation with the United States. He saw the unity of the people with Washington as leader, ances were received from France of their courteous reception. These were received from Talleyrand (November, 1799), and the two envoys sailed for France. The same month the Directory, which had become unpopular, was overthrown, and the government of France remodelled, with Napoleon Bonaparte as first consul, or

supreme ruler, of the nation. The envoys were cordially received by Talleyrand, in the name of the first consul, and all difficulties between the two nations were speedily adjusted. A convention was signed at Paris (Sept. 30, 1800) by the three envoys and three French commissioners which was satisfactory to both parties. The convention also made a decision contrary to the doctrine avowed and practised by the English government, that "free ships make free goods." This affirmed the doctrine of Frederick the Great, enunciated fifty years before, and denied that of England in her famous "rule of 1756."

France, Threatening Attitude of. See Adams, John.

Franchere, Gabriel, pioneer; born in Montreal, Canada, Nov. 3, 1786; was connected with the American fur company organized by John Jacob Astor, and did much to develop the fur trade in the Rocky Mountains and the northern Pacific coast. He published a *History of the Astor Expeditions*, in French, which was the first work containing detailed accounts of the Northwest Territory. When he died, in St. Paul, Minn., in 1856, he was the last survivor of the Astor expedition.

Franchise. See Election Bill, Federal; Elective Franchise; Suffrage.

Francis, Convers, clergyman; born in West Cambridge, Mass., Nov. 9, 1785; graduated at Harvard in 1815; became pastor of the Unitarian Church in Watertown, Mass., in 1819. Among his writings are *Historical Sketch of Watertown; Life of John Eliot* in Sparks's *American Biographies; Memoirs* of Rev. John Allyn, Dr. Gamaliel Bradford, Judge Davis, etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., April 7, 1863.

Francis, David Rowland, merchant; born in Richmond, Ky., Oct. 1, 1850; graduated at Washington University, St. Louis, in 1870; governor of Missouri in 1889–93; Secretary of the Interior in 1896–97; president Louisiana Purchase Exposition Commission in 1904.

Francis, John Wakefield, physician; born in New York City, Nov. 17, 1789; graduated at Columbia College in 1809; began business life as a printer, but commenced the study of medicine, in 1810, under Dr. Hosack, and was his partner until 1820. From 1810 until 1814 they published the *American Medical and Philosophical Register*. He occupied the chair of materia medica in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, and, visiting Europe, was a pupil of the celebrated Abernethy. After filling various professorships until 1826, he devoted himself to the practice of his profession and to literary pursuits. Dr. Francis was probably the author of more biographies and memoirs than any American of his time, and was active, as one of the founders, in the promotion of the objects of the New York Historical Society and of other institutions. He was the first president of the New York Academy of Medicine, and was a member of numerous scientific and literary societies. He died in New York City, Feb. 8, 1861.

Francis, Joseph, inventor; born in Boston, Mass., March 12, 1801; invented a number of life-boats, life-cars, and surf-boats, which came into general use. In 1850, when the British ship *Ayrshire* was wrecked off New Jersey, 200 persons were saved by means of his life-car. He died in Cooperstown, N. Y., May 10, 1893.

Francis, Turbutt, soldier; born in Maryland in 1740; a son of the noted Tench Francis; was a colonel in the British army previous to the Revolutionary War, but resigned to fight on the side of the Americans. He died in 1797.

Frankfort Land Company. See Pastorius, F. D.

Franking Privilege, The, was a privilege of sending and receiving letters post free given to members of the British Parliament and of the Congress of the United States, and to certain public functionaries. This privilege was abused, and it was abolished in Great Britain in 1840. Congress bestowed upon Washington, on his retirement from the office of President of the republic, the privilege of free postage for the remainder of his life. This privilege has been extended to all subsequent Presidents, and also to their widows. The departmental franking privilege was abolished in 1873, and each of the executive departments was supplied with a special set of postage-stamps for its official communications. This plan also was abolished, and now official communications are sent by the departments

in unstamped "penalty" envelopes, and Senators and Representatives are permitted to have mail packages forwarded simply bearing their name or frank. Letters of soldiers and sailors in active service or inconvenient stations are forwarded free of postage, when properly marked.

Frankland. In 1784, North Carolina ceded her western lands to the United States. The people of east Tennessee, piqued at being thus disposed of, and feeling the burdens of State taxation, alleging that no provision was made for their defence or the administration of justice, assembled in convention at Jonesboro, to take measures for organizing a new and independent State. The North Carolina Assembly, willing to compromise, repealed the act of cession the same year, made the Tennessee counties a separate military district, with John Sevier as brigadier-general, and also a separate judicial district, with proper officers. But ambitious men urged the people forward, and at a second convention, at the same place, Dec. 14, 1784, they resolved to form an independent State, under the name of Frankland. A provisional government was formed; Sevier was chosen governor (March, 1785); the machinery of an independent State was put in motion, and the governor of North Carolina (Martin) was informed that the counties of Sullivan, Washington, and Greene were no longer a part of the State of North Carolina. Martin issued a proclamation, exhorting all engaged in the movement to return to their duty; and the Assembly passed an act of oblivion as to all who should submit. But the provisional constitution of Frankland, based upon that of North Carolina, was adopted (November, 1785) as a permanent one, and the new State entered upon an independent career. Very soon rivalries and jealousies appeared. Parties arose and divided the people, and at length a third party, favoring adherence to North Carolina, led by Colonel Tipton, showed much and increasing strength. The new State sent William Cocke as a delegate to the Congress, but he was not received, while the North Carolina party sent a delegate to the legislature of that State. Party spirit ran high. Frankland had two sets of officers, and civil war was threatened. Collisions became frequent. The inhabitants of southwestern Virginia sympathized with the revolutionists, and were inclined to secede from their own State. Finally an armed collision between men under Tipton and Sevier took place. The latter were defeated, and finally arrested, and taken to prison in irons. Frankland had received its death-blow. The Assembly of North Carolina passed an act of oblivion, and offered pardon for all offenders in Frankland in 1788, and the trouble ceased. Virginia, alarmed by the movement, hastened to pass a law subjecting to the penalties of treason any person who should attempt to erect a new State in any part of her territory without previous permission of her Assembly. See SEVIER; TENNESSEE.

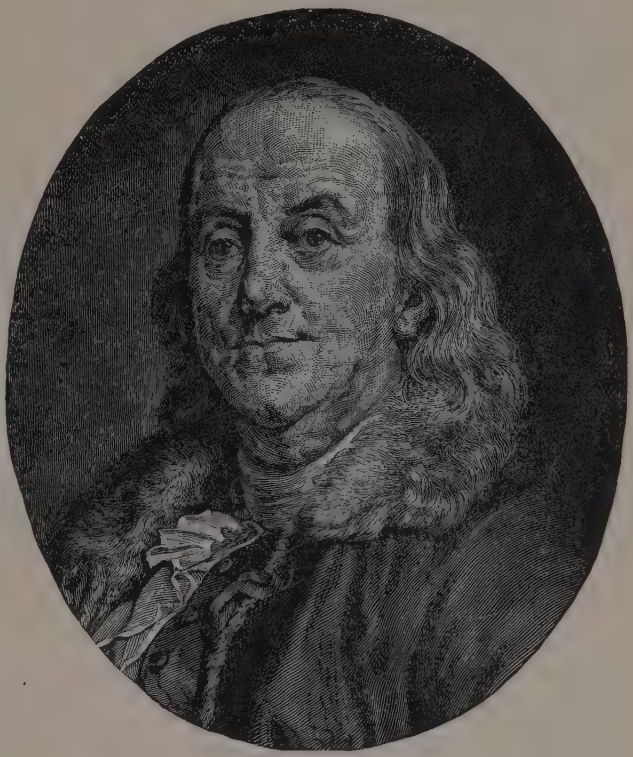
FRANKLIN, BENJAMIN

Franklin, BENJAMIN, statesman; born in Boston, Jan. 17, 1706. His father was from England; his mother was a daughter of Peter Folger, the Quaker poet of Nantucket. He learned the art of printing with his brother; but they disagreeing, Benjamin left Boston when seventeen years of age, sought employment in New York, but, not succeeding, went to Philadelphia, and there found it. He soon attracted the attention of Governor Keith as a very bright lad, who, making him a promise of the government printing, induced young Franklin, at the age of eighteen, to go to England and purchase printing material. He was deceived, and remained there eighteen months, working as a journeyman printer in London. He returned to Philadelphia late in 1726, and in 1729 established himself there as a printer. He started the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, and married Deborah Read, a young woman whose husband had absconded. For many years he published an almanac under the assumed name of Richard Saunders. It became widely known as *Poor Richard's Almanac*, as it contained many wise and useful maxims, mostly from the ancients. Franklin was soon marked as a wise, prudent, and saga-

cious man, full of well-directed public spirit. He was the chief founder of the Philadelphia Library in 1731. He became clerk of the Provincial Assembly in 1736, and postmaster of Philadelphia the next year. He was the founder of the University of Pennsylvania and the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia in 1744, and was elected a member of the Provincial Assembly in 1750. In 1753 he was appointed deputy postmaster for the English-American colonies; and in 1754 he was a delegate to the Colonial Congress of Albany, in which he prepared a plan of union for the colonies, which was the basis of the Articles of Confederation (see CONFEDERATION, ARTICLES OF) adopted by Congress more than twenty years afterwards.

Franklin had begun his investigations and experiments in electricity, by which he demonstrated its identity with lightning as early as 1746. The publication of his account of these experiments procured for him membership in the Royal Society, the Copley gold medal, and the degree of LL.D. from Oxford and Edinburgh in 1762. Harvard and Yale colleges had previously conferred upon him the degree of Master of Arts. Franklin was for many years a member of the Assembly and advocated the rights of the people in opposition to the claims of the proprietaries; and in 1764 he was sent to England as agent of the colonial legislature, in which capacity he afterwards acted for several other colonies. His representation to the British ministry, in 1765–66, of the temper of the Americans on the subject of taxation by Parliament did much in effecting the repeal of the Stamp Act. He tried to avert the calamity of a rupture between Great Britain and her colonies; but, failing in this, he returned to America in 1775, after which he was constantly employed at home and abroad in the service of his countrymen struggling for political independence.

In Congress, he advocated, helped to prepare and signed the Declaration of Independence; and in the fall of 1776 he was sent as ambassador to France, as the colleague of Silas Deane and Arthur Lee. To him was chiefly due the successful negotiation of the treaty of alliance with France, and he continued to represent his country there until 1785, when he returned home. While he was in France, and residing at Passy in 1777, a medallion likeness of him was made in the red clay of that region. The



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

FRANKLIN AS AN APPRENTICE.

engraving of it given is about half the size of the original. He took an important part in the negotiation of the treaties of peace. In 1786 he was elected governor of Pennsylvania, and served one term; and he was a leading member in the convention, in 1787, that framed the national Constitution. His last public act was the signing of a memorial to Congress on the subject of slavery by the Abolition Society of Pennsylvania, of which he was the founder and president. Dr. Franklin performed extraordinary labors of usefulness for his fellow-men. In addition to scientific and literary institutions, he was the founder of the first fire-company in Philadelphia in 1738; organized a volunteer military association for the defence of the province in 1744; and was colonel of a regiment, and built forts for the defence of the frontiers in 1755. He was the inventor of the FRANKLIN STOVE (*q. v.*), which in modified forms is still in use. He was also the inventor of the lightning-rod. Franklin left two children, a son, William, and a daughter. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., April 17, 1790.

In 1752 the Pennsylvania Assembly, yielding to the urgency of public affairs in the midst of war, voted a levy of $500,000 without insisting upon their claim to tax the proprietary estates. They protested that they did it through compulsion; and they sent Franklin to England as their agent to urge their complaint against the proprietaries. This was his first mission abroad.

At the beginning of the French and Indian War (1754) the colonists, as well as the royal governors, saw the necessity of a colonial union in order to present a solid front of British subjects to the French. Dr. Franklin labored earnestly to this end, and in 1755 he went to Boston to confer with Governor Shirley on the subject. At the governor's house they discussed the subject long and earnestly. Shirley was favorable to union, but he desired it to be effected by the fiat of the British government and by the spontaneous act of the colonists. Franklin, on the contrary, animated by a love of popular liberty, would not consent to that method of forming a colonial union. He knew the true source of power was lodged with the people, and that a good government should be formed by the people for the people; and he left Shirley in disappointment. Shirley not only condemned the idea of a popular colonial government, but assured Franklin that he should immediately propose a plan

of union to the ministry and Parliament, and also a tax on the colonies.

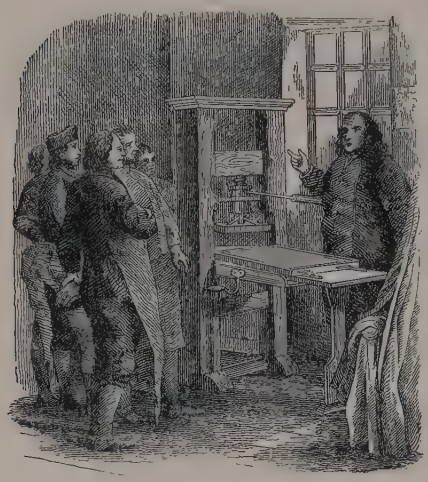
In February, 1766, Dr. Franklin was examined before the House of Commons relative to the STAMP ACT (*q. v.*). At that examination he fairly illustrated the spirit which animated the colonies. When asked, "Do you think the people of America would submit to the stamp duty if it were moderated?" he answered, "No, never, unless compelled by force of arms." To the question, "What was the temper of America towards Great Britain before the year 1763?" he replied, "The best in the world. They submitted willingly to the government of the crown, and paid, in their courts, obedience to the acts of Parliament. Numerous as the people are in the old provinces, they cost you nothing, in forts, citadels, garrisons, or armies, to keep them in subjection. They were governed by this country at the expense only of a little pen, ink, and paper; they were led by a thread. They had not only a respect but an affection for Great Britain, for its laws, its customs, and manners, and even a fondness for its fashions that greatly increased the commerce. Natives of Britain were always treated with peculiar regard. To be an 'Old England man' was of itself a character of some respect, and gave a kind of rank among us." It was asked, "What is their temper now?" and Franklin replied, "Oh, very much altered." He declared that all laws of Parliament had been held valid by the Americans, excepting such as laid internal taxes; and that its authority was never disputed in levying duties to regulate commerce. When asked, "Can you name any act of Assembly or public act of your government that made such distinction?" Franklin replied, "I do not know that there was any; I think there never was occasion to make such an act till now that you have attempted to tax us; *that* has occasioned acts of Assembly declaring the distinction, on which, I think, every Assembly on the continent, and every member of every Assembly, have been unanimous." This examination was one of the causes which led to a speedy repeal of the Stamp Act.

Late in 1773 Dr. Franklin presented to Lord Dartmouth, to be laid before the King, a petition from Massachusetts for the removal of Governor Hutchinson and Chief-Justice Oliver from office. They were charged with conspiracy against the colony, as appeared by certain letters which had been published. A rumor found utterance in the newspapers that the letters had been dishonestly obtained through John Temple, who had been permitted to examine the papers of the deceased Mr. Whately, to whom the letters were addressed. That permission had been given by William Whately, brother and executor of the deceased. Whately never made a suggestion that Temple had taken the letters away, but he published such an evasive card that it seemed not to relieve Temple from the implication.

THE FRANKLIN MEDALLION.

The latter challenged Whately to mortal combat. They fought, but were unhurt. Another duel was likely to ensue, when Dr. Franklin, to prevent bloodshed, pub-

licly said: "I alone am the person who obtained and transmitted to Boston the letters in question." This frank and courageous avowal drew upon him the wrath of the ministry. He was summoned before the privy council (Jan. 8, 1774) to consider the petition. He appeared with counsel. A crowd was present—not less than thirty-five peers. Wedderburn, the solicitor-general (of whom the King said, at his death, "He has not left a greater knave behind him in my kingdom"),



FRANKLIN'S PRESS.

abused Franklin most shamefully with unjust and coarse invectives, while not an emotion was manifested in the face of the abused statesman. The ill-bred lords of that day seconded Wedderburn's abuse by derisive laughter, instead of treating Franklin with decency. At the end of the solictor's ribald speech the petition was dismissed as "groundless, scandalous, and vexatious." "I have never been so sensible of the power of a good conscience," Franklin said to Dr. Priestley, with whom he breakfasted the next morning. When he went home from the council he laid aside the suit of clothes he wore, making a vow that he would never put them on again until he should sign the degradation of England by a dismemberment of the British Empire and the independence of America. He kept his word, and, as commissioner for negotiating peace almost ten years afterwards, he performed the act that permitted him to wear the garments again.

Franklin, in England in 1774, was a perfect enigma to the British ministry. They were perplexed with doubts of the intentions of the defiant colonists. They believed Franklin possessed the coveted secret, and tried in vain to draw it from him. He was an expert chess-player, and well known as such. Lord Howe (afterwards admiral on our coast) was intimate with leading ministers. His sister-in-law, Mrs. Howe, was also an expert chess-player, and an adroit diplomatist. She sent Franklin an invitation to her house to play chess, with the hope that in the freedom of social conversation she might obtain the secret. He went; was charmed with the lady's mind and manners; played a few games; and accepted an invitation to repeat the visit and the amusement. On his second visit, after playing a short time, they entered into conversation, when Mrs. Howe put questions adroitly to the sage, calculated to elicit the information she desired. He answered without reserve and with apparent frankness. He was introduced to her brother, Lord Howe, and talked freely with him on the subject of the great dispute; but, having early perceived the designs of the diplomatists, his usual caution had never allowed him to betray a single secret worth preserving. At the end of several interviews, enlivened by chess-playing, his questioners were no wiser than at the beginning.

While the Continental Congress was in session in the fall of 1774, much anxiety was felt in political circles in England concerning the result. The ministry, in particular, were anxious to know, and Franklin was solicited by persons high in authority to promulgate the extent of the demands of his countrymen. So urgent were these requests that, without waiting to receive a record of the proceedings of the Congress, he prepared a paper entitled *Hints for Conversation upon the Subject of Terms that may probably produce a durable Union between Britain and the Colonies*, in seventeen propositions. The substance of the whole was that the colonies should

be reinstated in the position which they hold, in relation to the imperial government, before the obnoxious acts then complained of became laws, by a repeal, and by a destruction of the whole brood of enactments in reference to America hatched since the accession of George III. In a word, he proposed that English subjects in America should enjoy all the essential rights and privileges claimed as the birthright of subjects in England. Nothing came of the *Hints*.

After the attack by Wedderburne when before the privy council, and his dismissal from the office of postmaster-general for the colonies, Franklin was subjected to the danger of arrest, and possibly a trial, for treason; for the ministry, angry because he had exposed Hutchinson's letters, made serious threats. Conscious of rectitude, he neither left England then nor swerved a line from his course of duty. When, in February, 1776, Lord North endeavored to find out from him what the Americans wanted, "We desire nothing," said Franklin, "but what is necessary to our security and well-being." After stating that some of the obnoxious acts would probably be repealed, Lord North said the Massachusetts acts must be continued, both "as real amendments" of the constitution of that province, and "as a standing example of the power of Parliament." Franklin replied: "While Parliament claims the right of altering American constitutions at pleasure, there can be no agreement, for we are rendered unsafe in every privilege." North answered: "An agreement is necessary for America; it is so easy for Britain to burn all your seaport towns." Franklin coolly answered: "My little property consists in houses in those towns; you may make bonfires of them whenever you please; the fear of losing them will never alter my resolution to resist to the last the claim of Parliament."

Mr. Strahan, of London, had been a sort of go-between through whom Dr. Franklin had communicated with Lord North. On July 5, 1776, Franklin wrote to him: "You are a member of Parliament, and one of that majority which has doomed my country to destruction. You have begun to burn our towns and murder our people. Look upon your hands; they are stained with the blood of your relations! You and I were long friends; you are now my enemy, and I am yours.—B. FRANKLIN."

Late in the autumn of 1776 Dr. Franklin was sent as a diplomatic agent to France in the ship *Reprisal*. The passage occupied thirty days, during which that vessel had been chased by British cruisers and had taken two British brigantines as prizes. He landed at Nantes on Dec. 7. Europe was surprised, for no notice had been given of his coming. His fame was world-wide. The courts were filled with conjectures. The story was spread in England that he was a fugitive for safety. Burke said, "I never will believe that he is going to conclude a long life, which has brightened every hour it has continued, with so foul and dishonorable a flight." On the Continent it was rightly concluded that he was on an important mission. To the French people he spoke frankly, saying that twenty successful campaigns could not subdue the Americans; that their decision for independence was irrevocable; and that they would be forever independent States. On the morning of Dec. 28, Franklin, with the other commissioners (Silas Deane and Arthur Lee), waited upon Vergennes, the French minister for foreign affairs, when he presented the plan of Congress for a treaty. Vergennes spoke of the attachment of the French nation to the American cause; requested a paper from Franklin on the condition of America; and that, in future, intercourse with the sage might be in secret, without the intervention of a third person. Personal friendship between these two distinguished men became strong and abiding. He told Franklin that as Spain and France were in perfect accord he might communicate freely with the Spanish minister, the Count de Aranda. With him the commissioners held secret but barren interviews as Aranda would only promise the freedom of Spanish ports to American vessels.

Vindication of the Colonies.—On June, 15, 1775, Franklin issued the following address to the public:

Forasmuch as the enemies of America in the Parliament of Great Britain, to ren-

FRANKLIN ON HIS WAY TO FRANCE.

der us odious to the nation, and give an ill impression of us in the minds of other European powers, having represented us as unjust and ungrateful in the highest degree; asserting, on every occasion, that the colonies were settled at the expense of Britain; that they were, at the expense of the same, protected in their infancy; that they now ungratefully and unjustly refuse to contribute to their own protection, and the common defence of the nation; that they intend an abolition of the navigation acts; and that they are fraudulent in their commercial dealings, and propose to cheat their creditors in Britain, by avoiding the payment of their just debts;

And as by frequent repetitions these groundless assertions and malicious calumnies may, if not contradicted and refuted, obtain further credit, and be injurious throughout Europe to the reputation and interest of the Confederate colonies, it seems proper and necessary to examine them in our own just vindication.

With regard to the first, *that the colonies were settled at the expense of Britain,* it is a known fact that none of the twelve united colonies were settled, or even discovered, at the expense of England. Henry VII., indeed, granted a commission to Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, and his sons to sail into western seas for the discovery of new countries; but it was to be "*suis corum propriis sumptibus et expensis,*" at their own cost and charges. They discovered, but soon slighted and neglected these northern territories; which were, after more than a hundred years' dereliction, purchased of the natives, and settled at the charge and by the labor of private men and bodies of men, our ancestors, who came over hither for that purpose. But our adversaries have never been able to produce any record that ever the Parliament or government of England was at the smallest expense on these accounts; on the contrary, there exists on the journals of Parliament a solemn declaration in 1642 (only twenty-two years after the first settlement of the Massachusetts colony, when, if such ex-

pense had ever been incurred, some of the members must have known and remembered it), "that these colonies had been planted and established *without any expense to the state.*"

New York is the only colony in the founding of which England can pretend to have been at any expense, and that was only the charge of a small armament to take it from the Dutch, who planted it. But to retain this colony at the peace, another at that time fully as valuable, planted by private countrymen of ours, was given up by the crown to the Dutch in exchange—viz., Surinam, now a wealthy sugar colony in Guiana, and which, but for that cession, might still have remained in our possession. Of late, indeed, Britain has been at some expense in planting two colonies, Georgia and Nova Scotia, but those are not in our confederacy; and the expense she has been at in their name has chiefly been in grants of sums unnecessarily large, by way of salaries to officers sent from England, and in jobs to friends, whereby dependants might be provided for; those excessive grants not being requisite to the welfare and good government of the colonies, which good government (as experience in many instances of other colonies has taught us) may be much more frugally, and full as effectually, provided for and supported.

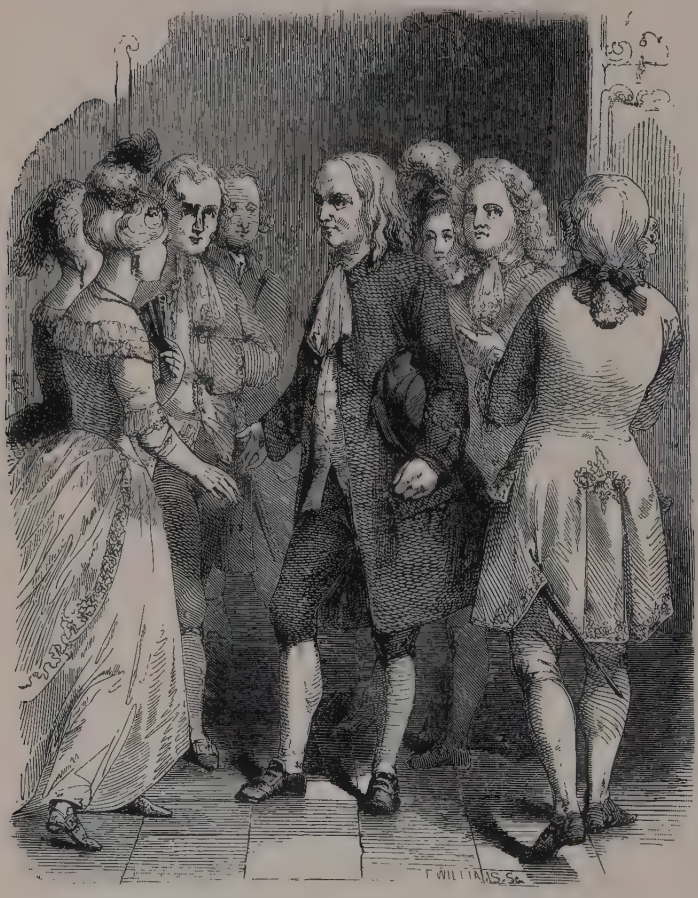
With regard to the second assertion, *that these colonies were protected in their infant state by England,* it is a notorious fact, that, in none of the many wars with the Indian natives, sustained by our infant settlements for a century after our arrival, were ever any troops or forces of any kind sent from England to assist us; nor were any forts built at her expense, to secure our seaports from foreign invaders; nor any ships of war sent to protect our trade till many years after our first settlement, when our commerce became an object of revenue, or of advantage to British merchants; and then it was thought necessary to have a frigate in some of our ports, during peace, to give weight to the authority of custom-house officers, who were to restrain that commerce for the benefit of England. Our own arms, with our poverty, and the care of a kind Providence, were all this time our only protection; while we were neglected by the English government; which either thought us not worth its care, or, having no good will to some of us, on account of our different sentiments in religion and politics, was indifferent what became of us.

On the other hand, the colonies have not been wanting to do what they could in every war for annoying the enemies of Britain. They formerly assisted her in the conquest of Nova Scotia. In the war before last they took Louisburg, and put it into her hands. She made her peace with that strong fortress by restoring it to France, greatly to their detriment. In the last war, it is true, Britain sent a fleet and army, who acted with an equal army of ours, in the reduction of Canada, and perhaps thereby did more for us, than we in our preceding wars had done for her. Let it be remembered, however, that she rejected the plan we formed in the Congress at Albany, in 1754, for our own defence, by a union of the colonies; a union she was jealous of, and therefore chose to send her own forces; otherwise her aid to protect us was not wanted. And from our first settlement to that time, her military operations in our favor were small, compared with the advantages she drew from her exclusive commerce with us. We are, however, willing to give full weight to this obligation; and, as we are daily growing stronger, and our assistance to her becomes of more importance, we should with pleasure embrace the first opportunity of showing our gratitude by returning the favor in kind.

But, when Britain values herself as affording us protection, we desire it may be considered that we have followed her in all her wars, and joined with her at our own expense against all she thought fit to quarrel with. This she has required of us; and would never permit us to keep peace with any power she declared her enemy; though by separate treaties we might have done it. Under such circumstances, when at her instance we made nations our enemies, we submit it to the common-sense of mankind, whether her protection of us in those wars was not our *just due,* and to be claimed of *right,* instead of being received as a favor? And whether, when all the parts exert themselves to do the utmost in their com

mon defence, and in annoying the common enemy, it is not as well the *parts* that protect the *whole*, as the *whole* that protects the *parts?* The protection then has been proportionately mutual. And whenever the time shall come that our abilities may as far exceed hers as hers have exceeded ours, we hope we shall be reasonable enough to rest satisfied with her proportionable exertions, and not think we do too much for a part of the empire, when that part does as much as it can for the whole.

To charge against us *that we refuse to contribute to our own protection*, appears from the above to be groundless; but we further declare it to be absolutely false; for it is well known, that we ever held it as our duty to grant aids to the crown, upon requisition, towards carrying on its wars; which duty we have cheerfully complied with, to the utmost of our abilities, insomuch that prudent and grateful acknowledgments thereof by King and Parliament appear on the records. But, as Britain has enjoyed a most gainful monopoly of our commerce; the same, with our maintaining the dignity of the King's representative in each colony, and all our own separate establishments of government, civil and military; has ever hitherto been deemed an equivalent for such aids as might otherwise be expected from us in time of peace. And we hereby declare that on a reconciliation with Britain, we shall not only continue to grant aids in time of war, as aforesaid; but whenever she shall think fit to abolish her monopoly, and give us the same privileges of trade as Scotland received at the union, and allow us a free commerce with the rest of the world; we shall willingly agree (and we doubt not it will be ratified by our constituents) to give and pay into the sinking fund £100,000 sterling per annum for the term of 100 years, which duly, faithfully, and inviolably applied to that purpose, is demon-



FRANKLIN IN FRENCH SOCIETY.

strably more than sufficient to extinguish all her present national debt; since it will in that time amount, at legal British interest, to more than £230,000,000.

But if Britain does not think fit to accept this proposition, we, in order to remove her groundless jealousies, that we aim at independence and an abolition of the navigation act (which hath in truth never been our intention), and to avoid all future disputes about the right of making that and other acts for regulating our commerce, do hereby declare ourselves ready and willing to enter into a covenant with Britain, that she shall fully possess, enjoy, and exercise the right, for 100 years to come; the same being *bona fide* used for the common benefit; and, in case of such agreement, that every Assembly be advised by us to confirm it solemnly by laws of their own, which, once made, cannot be repealed without the assent of the crown.

The last charge, *that we are dishonest traders*, and aim at defrauding our creditors in Britain, is sufficiently and authentically refuted by the solemn declarations of the British merchants to Parliament (both at the time of the Stamp Act and in the last session), who bore ample testimony to the general good faith and fair dealing of the Americans, and declared their confidence in our integrity; for which we refer to their petitions on the journals of the House of Commons. And we presume we may safely call on the body of the British tradesmen, who have had experience of both, to say, whether they have not received much more punctual payment from us, than they generally have from the members of their own two Houses of Parliament.

On the whole of the above it appears that the charge of *ingratitude* towards the mother-country, brought with so much confidence against the colonies, is totally without foundation; and that there is much more reason for retorting that charge on Britain, who, not only never contributes any aid, nor affords, by an exclusive commerce, any advantages to Saxony, *her* mother-country; but no longer since than in the last war, without the least provocation, subsidized the King of Prussia while he ravaged that *mother-country*, and carried fire and sword into its capital, the fine city of Dresden! An example we hope no provocation will induce us to imitate.

Franklin, SAMUEL RHOADS, naval officer; born in York, Pa., Aug. 25, 1825; was appointed midshipman Feb. 18, 1841; was promoted to passed midshipman, Aug. 10, 1847; master, April 18, 1855; lieutenant, Sept. 4, 1855; lieutenant-commander, Sept. 26, 1866; captain, Aug. 13, 1872; commodore, Dec. 15, 1880; and rear-admiral, Jan. 24, 1885; and was retired in 1887. Most of his forty-six years of service was spent at sea. During both the Mexican and Civil wars he was active in the most important operations. He was president of the international marine Conference, and is author of *Memories of a Rear-Admiral.* He died Feb. 24, 1909.

Franklin, WILLIAM, royal governor; born in Philadelphia in 1729, only son of Benjamin Franklin. It is not known who his mother was. About a year after his birth Franklin was married, took his child into his own house, and brought him up as his son. He held a captain's commission in the French War (1744–48). From 1754 to 1756 he was comptroller of the colonial post-office, and clerk to the Provincial Assembly. He went to London with his father in 1757, and was admitted to the bar in 1758. In 1762 he was appointed governor of the province of New Jersey, remaining loyal to the crown when the Revolution broke out, and in January, 1776, a guard was put over him at his residence at Perth Amboy. He gave his parole that he would not leave the province. In June (1776) he called a meeting of the legislature of New Jersey, for which offence, defiance of public opinion, he was arrested and sent to Connecticut, where for more than two years he was strictly guarded, when, in November, 1778, he was exchanged. He remained in New York, and was active as president of the Board of Associated Loyalists until 1782, when he sailed for England, where he was allowed by the government $9,000 and a pension of $4,000 a year. His father willed him lands in Nova Scotia and forgave him all his debts, nothing more. In his will, Dr. Franklin observed concerning this son, from whom he was estranged: "The part he acted against me in the

late war, which is of public notoriety, will account for my leaving him no more of an estate he endeavored to deprive me of." He died in England Nov. 17, 1813.

Franklin, WILLIAM BUEL, military officer; born in York, Pa., Feb. 27, 1823, graduated at West Point in 1843. In the

WILLIAM BUEL FRANKLIN.

engineer service, he was actively engaged when the war with Mexico broke out. He served on the staff of General Taylor at the battle of Buena Vista, and was brevetted first lieutenant. Serving as Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy at West Point for four years, he occupied the same chair, and that of Civil Engineering, in the New York City Free Academy, in 1852. In May, 1861, he was appointed colonel of the 12th Infantry, and in July was assigned the command of a brigade in Heintzelman's division. He was in the hottest of the fight at Bull Run; was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers in September, and appointed to the command of a division of the Army of the Potomac. Franklin did excellent service in the campaign of the Virginia Peninsula, and on July 4, 1862, was promoted to major-general. He served under McClelland in Maryland, and under Burnside at Fredericksburg, and in 1863 was assigned to the Department of the Gulf, under Banks. In March, 1865, he was brevetted major-general in the regular army, and, resigning in March, 1866, engaged in manufacturing. In 1889 he was United States commissioner-general for the Paris Exposition. He died in Hartford, Conn., March 8, 1903.

Franklin, BATTLE OF. General Thomas had sent General Schofield southward to confront Hood's invasion of Tennessee in 1864, and he took post south of Duck River, hoping to fight the invaders there. But two divisions under A. J. Smith, coming from Missouri, had not arrived, and Schofield fell back, first to Columbia, and then to Franklin, not far below Nashville, General Stanley saving his train from seizure by Forrest after a sharp fight with the guerilla chief. At Franklin, Schofield disposed his troops in a curved line south and west of the town, his flanks resting on the Harpeth River. He cast up a line of light intrenchments along his entire front. His cavalry, with Wood's division, were posted on the north bank of the river, and Fort Granger, on a bluff, commanded the gently rolling plain over which Hood must advance in a direct attack. Schofield had about 18,000 men. At four

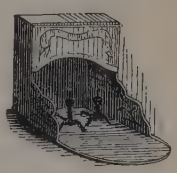
BATTLE-FIELD OF FRANKLIN

MAP OF THE BATTLE OF FRANKLIN.

o'clock on the afternoon of Nov. 30, 1864, Hood advanced to the attack with all his force. A greater part of his cavalry, under Forrest, was on his right, and the remainder were on his left. The Confederates fell fiercely upon Schofield's centre, composed of the divisions of Ruger and Cox, about 10,000 strong. Their sudden appearance was almost a surprise. Schofield was at Fort Granger, and the battle, on the part of the Nationals, was conducted by General Stanley. By a furious charge Hood hurled back the Union advance in utter confusion upon the main line, when that, too, began to crumble. A strong position on a hill was carried by the Confederates, where they seized eight guns. They forced their way within the second line and planted a Confederate flag upon the intrenchments.

All now seemed lost to the Nationals, who, as their antagonists were preparing to follow up their victory, seemed about to break and fly, when Stanley rode forward and ordered Opdyke to advance with his brigade. Swiftly they charged the Confederate columns and drove them back. Conrad, close by, gave assistance. The works and the guns were recovered; 300 prisoners and ten battle-flags were captured; and the Union line was restored, and not again broken, though Hood hurled strong bodies of men against it. The struggle continued until long after dark; it was almost midnight when the last shot was fired. The advantage was with the Nationals. The result was disastrous to Hood. His men were dispirited, and he lost 6,253 soldiers, of whom 1,750 were killed and 702 made prisoners. Schofield's loss was 2,326, of whom 180 were killed and 1,104 missing. The Nationals withdrew from Franklin a little after midnight, and fell back to Nashville.

Franklin Stove. The first iron fireplace for heating rooms was invented by Dr. Benjamin Franklin about 1740, and is known as the "Franklin Stove" to this day. It is an open fireplace constructed of iron, and portable, so that it may be used in any room with a chimney. It was made for the purpose of better warming and for saving fuel. He refused the offer of a patent for it by the governor of Pennsylvania, as he held that, as we profit by the inventions of others, so we should freely give what we may for the comfort of our fellow-men. He gave his models to Robert Grace, one of his early friends in London, who had an iron-foundry, and he made much money by casting these stoves. They were in general use in all the rural districts of the country for many years, or until anthracite coal began to take the place of wood as fuel and required a different kind of stove.



THE FRANKLIN STOVE.

Fraser, SIMON, military officer; born in Scotland in 1729; served with distinction in Germany, and was appointed a brigadier-general in the British army by Governor Carleton, Sept. 6, 1776. He gained a victory over the Americans at Hubbardton in July, 1777, and was shot by one of Morgan's riflemen in the first battle on Bemis's Heights, Sept. 19, 1777, and died on Oct. 7 following.

Fraternal Organizations. According to reports of the supreme bodies of these organizations the membership of the principal fraternal organizations in the United States and Canada in 1911 was nearly 12,000,000, the largest of which were:

Odd Fellows	1,441,403
Freemasons	1,389,317
Modern Woodmen of America	1,045,869
Knights of Pythias	706,922
Independent Order of Rechabites	500,000
Woodmen of the World	500,369
Improved Order of Red Men	480,574
Knights of Maccabees of the World	300,000
Royal Arcanum	245,610
Ancient Order of United Workmen	110,086
Independent Order of Foresters	235,800
Order of Eagles	306,000
Foresters of America	231,996
Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks	331,288
Ancient Order of Hibernians	250,000
Knights of Columbus	250,000
Junior Order of United American Mechanics	210,000
Ladies of the Maccabees of the World	155,184
Knights of the Modern Maccabees	106,883
Ladies' Catholic Benevolent Asso	118,694
Order of Owls	152,421
Tribe of Ben Hur	110,360
Brotherhood of American Yeomen	111,550

Frazier's Farm, BATTLE OF. See GLENDALE, BATTLE OF.

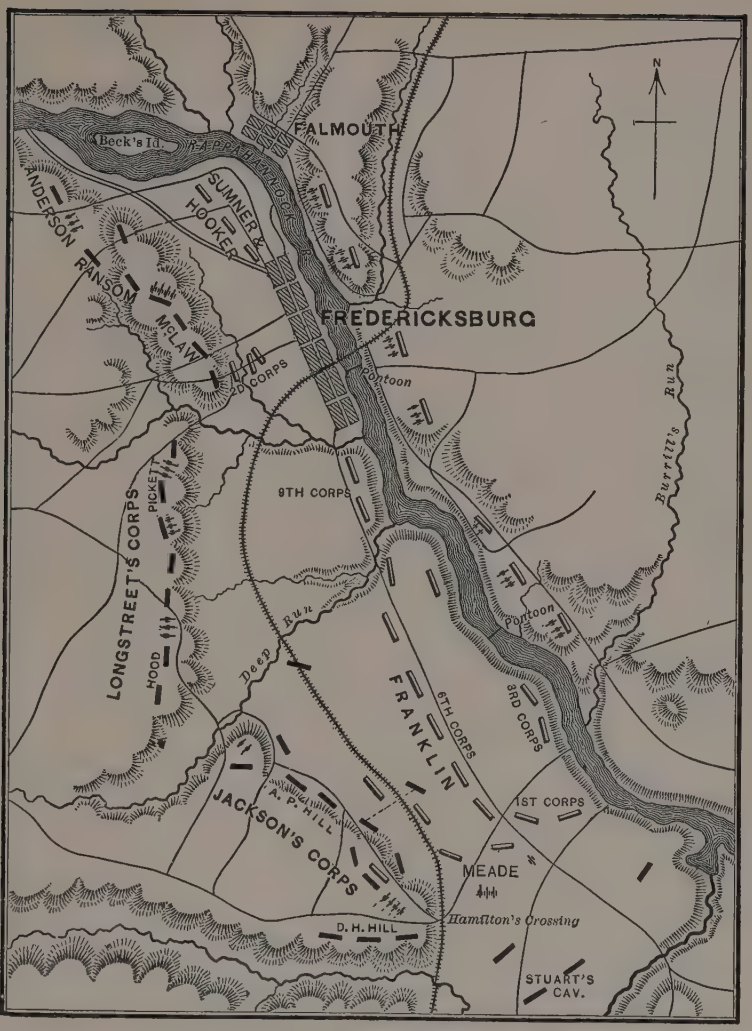
Frear, WALTER FRANCIS, jurist; born in Grass Valley, Cal., Oct. 29, 1863; became chief-justice of the Supreme Court of Hawaii in 1900; governor of the Territory in 1907. He is the author of *Evolution of the Hawaiian Judiciary.*

Frederick, FORT, a protective work on the north bank of the Potomac River in Maryland, fifty miles below Fort Cumberland; erected in 1755–56, also the name of the first fort at CROWN POINT (*q. v.*).

Frederick the Great, King of Prussia from 1740 to 1786, is said to have declared that the achievements of Washington between Dec. 25, 1776 and Jan. 4, 1777, were the most brilliant of any recorded in the annals of military history. He took every occasion to express his contempt for the "scandalous man traffic" of the rulers of Hesse-Cassel, etc. He refused to allow the German mercenaries to pass through his dominions, and sent Washington a sword "from the oldest general in the world to the greatest." On May 14, 1892, Emperor William offered a bronze statue of Frederick to be erected in Washington in commemoration of Prince Henry's visit to the United States, The offer was accepted by President Roosevelt.

Fredericksburg, BATTLE AT. Lee's evacuation of Maryland after the battle on Antietam Creek occurred on Sept. 19–20, 1862. Lee rested a few days on the Virginia side of the Potomac, and then marched leisurely up the Shenandoah Valley. McClellan did not pursue, but after twice calling for reinforcement, he declared his intention to stand where he was, on the defensive, and "attack the enemy should he attempt to recross into Maryland." The government and the loyal people, impatient of delay, demanded an immediate advance. On Oct. 6 the President instructed McClellan to "cross the Potomac and give battle to the enemy, or drive him south. Your army must now move," he said, "while the roads are good." Twenty days were spent in correspondence before the order was obeyed, McClellan complaining of a lack of men and supplies to make it prudent to move forward. At length, when October had nearly passed by and Lee's army was thoroughly rested and reorganized, and communications with Richmond were re-established, the Army of the Potomac began to cross the river (Oct. 26), 100,000 strong. The Nationals were led on the east side of the Blue Ridge, but failed to strike the retreating Confederates over the mountain in flank or to get ahead of them; and Lee pushed Longstreet's troops over the Blue Ridge to Culpeper Court-house, between the Army of the Potomac and Richmond, ready to dispute the advance of the Nationals.

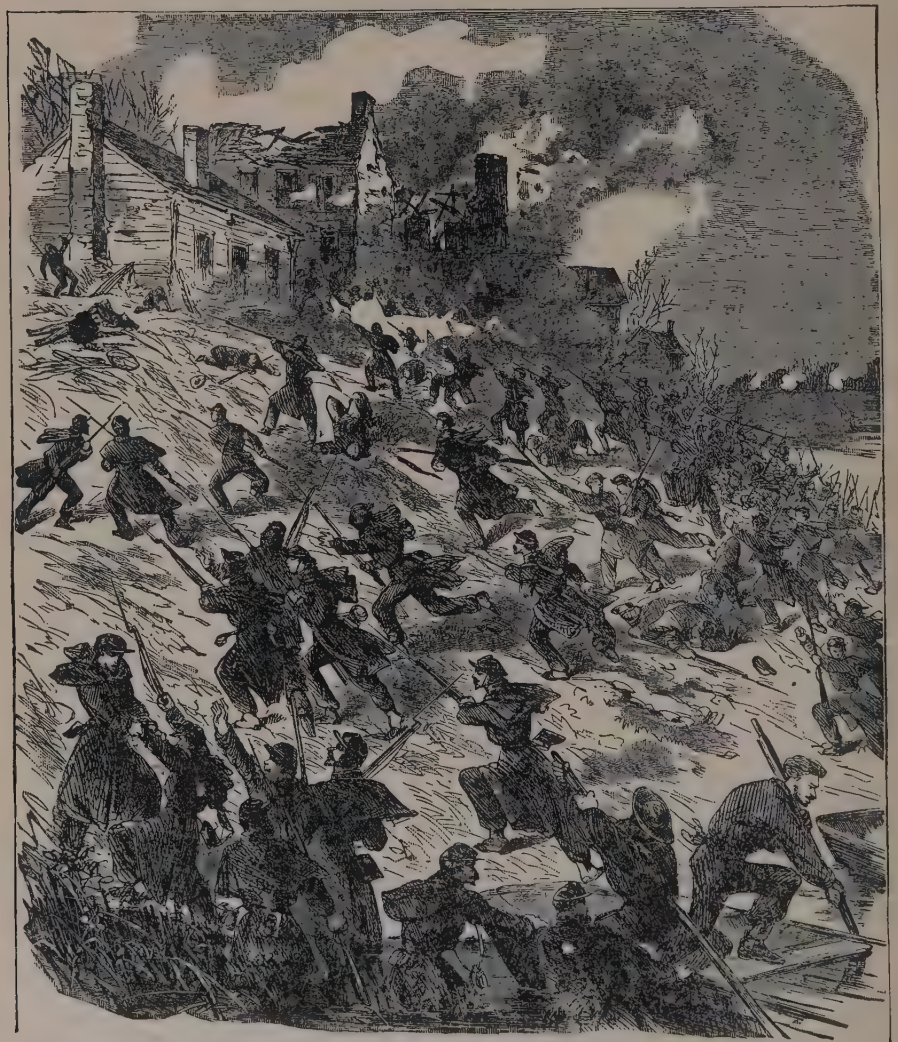
On Nov. 5 McClellan was relieved of command and Burnside was put in his place. Before he moved he endeavored to get his 120,000 men well in hand. Aquia Creek was made his base of supplies, and he moved forward to Fredericksburg on Nov. 10. By the 20th a greater portion of Burnside's forces were opposite Fredericksburg, and their cannon com-



MAP OF BATTLE OF FREDERICKSBURG.

manded the town. Sumner demanded the surrender of the city (Nov. 21). It was refused. The bridges had been destroyed. A greater portion of the inhabitants now fled, and the town was occupied by Confederate troops. Lee's army, 80,000 strong, was upon and near the Heights of Fredericksburg by the close of November, and had planted strong batteries there. The army lay in a semicircle around Fredericksburg, each wing resting upon the Rappahannock, its right at Port Royal and its left 6 miles above the city. Pontoons for the construction of bridges across the Rappahannock were not received by Burnside until the first week in December. Then 60,000 National troops under Sumner and Hooker lay in front of Fredericksburg, with 150 cannon, commanded by General Hunt. The corps of Franklin, about 40,000 strong, was encamped about 2 miles below.

On the morning of Dec. 11 the engineers went quietly to work to construct five pontoon bridges for the passage of the National army. Sharp-shooters assailed the engineers. The heavy ordnance of the Nationals on Stafford Heights opened upon the town, set it on fire, and drove out many troops. The sharp-shooters remained. They were dislodged by a party that crossed the river in boats, the bridges were rebuilt, and by the evening of the 12th a greater portion of the National army occupied Fredericksburg, and on the morning of the 13th made a simultaneous assault all along the line. The Confederates, with 300 cannon, were well posted on the heights and ready for action. The battle was begun by a part of Franklin's corps, Meade's division, supported by Gibbon's, with Doubleday's in reserve. Meade soon silenced a Confederate battery, but very soon a terrible



THE ATTACK ON FREDERICKSBURG.

THE BATTLE OF FREDERICKSBURG. VOLUNTEERS CROSSING THE RIVER

storm of shells and canister-shot, at near range, fell upon him. He pressed on, and three of the assailing batteries were withdrawn. Jackson's advance line, under A. P. Hill, was driven back, and 200 men made prisoners, with several battle-flags as trophies. Meade still pressed on, when a fierce assault by Early compelled him to fall back. Gibbon, who came up, was repulsed, and the shattered forces fled in confusion; but the pursuers were checked by General Birney's division of Stoneman's corps. The Nationals could not advance, for Stuart's cavalry, on Lee's right, strongly menaced the Union left. Finally, Reynolds, with reinforcements, pushed back the Confederate right to the Massaponax, where the contest continued until dark. Meanwhile, Couch's corps had occupied the city, with Wilcox's between his and Franklin's. At noon Couch attacked the Confederate front with great vigor. Kimball's brigade, of French's division, led, Hancock's following. Longstreet was posted on Marye's Hill, just back of the town. Upon his troops the Nationals fell heavily, while missiles from the Confederate cannon made great lanes through their ranks. After a brief struggle, French was thrown back, shattered and broken, nearly one-half of his command disabled. Hancock advanced, and his brigades fought most vigorously. In fifteen minutes, Hancock, also, was driven back. Of 5,000 veterans whom he led into action, 2,013 had fallen, and yet the struggle was maintained.

Howard's division came to the aid of French and Hancock; so, also, did those of Sturgis and Getty. Finally, Hooker crossed the river with three divisions. He was so satisfied with the hopelessness of any further attacks upon the strong position of the Confederates, that he begged Burnside to desist. He would not yield. Hooker sent 4,000 men in the track of French, Hancock, and Howard, to attack with bayonets only. These were hurled back by terrific volleys of rifle-balls, leaving 1,700 of their number prostrate on the field. Night soon closed the awful conflict, when the Army of the Potomac had 15,000 less of effective men than it had the day before. Burnside, intent on achieving a victory, proposed to send his old corps, the 9th, against the fatal barrier (a stone wall) on Marye's Hill, but Sumner dissuaded him, and, on the 14th and 15th, his troops were withdrawn to the north side of the Rappahannock, with all his guns, taking up his pontoon bridges. Then the Confederates re-occupied Fredericksburg.

SCENE IN FREDERICKSBURG ON THE MORNING OF DEC. 12, 1862.

Free Commonwealth, PLAN FOR A. See MILTON, JOHN.

Freedley, EDWIN TROXELL, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 28, 1827; studied law at Harvard College in 1845; removed to Philadelphia in 1851. His publications include *Philadelphia and its Manufactures; History of American Manufactures; Leading Pursuits and Leading Men*, etc. He died in 1904.

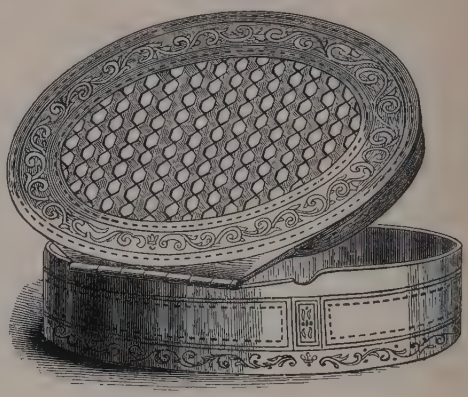
Freedmen, the former slaves who were emancipated during the American Civil War.

Freedmen's Bureau. Early in 1865 Congress established a Bureau of Freedmen, Refugees, and Abandoned Lands, attached to the War Department; and early in May GEN. OLIVER O. HOWARD (*q. v.*) was appointed commissioner. He appointed eleven assistant commissioners, all army officers; namely—for the District of Columbia, Gen. John Eaton, Jr.; Virginia, Col. O. Brown; North Carolina, Col. E. Whittlesey; South Carolina and Georgia, Gen. R. Sexton; Florida, Col. T. W. Osborne; Alabama, Gen. W. Swayne; Louisiana, first the Rev. T. W. Conway, and then Gen. A. Baird; Texas, Gen. E. M. Gregory; Mississippi, Col. S. Thomas; Kentucky and Tennessee, Gen. C. B. Fisk, Missouri and Arkansas, Gen. J. W. Sprague. The bureau took under its charge the freedmen, the refugees, and the abandoned lands in the South, for the purpose of protecting the freedmen and the refugees in their rights, and returning the lands to their proper owners. To make the operations of the bureau more efficient an act was passed (Feb. 19, 1866) for enlarging its powers. President Johnson interposed his veto, but it became a law. The bureau was discontinued Aug. 3, 1868, with the exception of the educational supervision, which remained in force by act of Congress until July 1, 1870.

Freedom of a City. The conferring of all the privileges of a citizen upon a stranger, or one not entitled to such privileges because of non-residence, is an ancient way of honoring one for meritorious services. When the eminent lawyer of Pennsylvania, Andrew Hamilton, had ably defended the liberty of the press in the case of JOHN PETER ZENGER (*q. v.*), the corporation of the city of New York conferred the freedom of the city upon him. The certificate of such honor is usually enclosed in a gold box, bearing on the underside of the lid an inscription indicative of the event. The following is a copy of the certificate of freedom which the corporation of the city of New York gave to GEN. JACOB BROWN (*q. v.*) after the battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane, in the summer of 1814:

"To all to whom these presents shall come, De Witt Clinton, Esq., Mayor, and the Aldermen of the city of New York, send greeting: At a meeting of the Common Council, held at the Common Council chamber in the City Hall of the city of New York, the following resolutions were unanimously agreed to:

"'*Whereas*, the Corporation of the city entertains the most lively sense of the late brilliant achievements of Gen. Jacob Brown on the Niagara frontier, considering them as proud evidences of the skill and intrepidity of the hero of Chippewa and his brave companions in arms, and affording ample proof of the superior valor of our



GENERAL BROWN'S GOLD BOX.

hardy farmers over the veteran legions of the enemy, *Resolved*, that, as a tribute of respect to a gallant officer and his intrepid associates, who have added such lustre to our arms, the freedom of the city of New York be presented to Gen. Jacob Brown, that his portrait be obtained and placed in the gallery of portraits belonging to this city, and that the thanks of this corporation be tendered to the officers and men under his command.' Know ye that Jacob Brown, Esquire, is admitted and allowed a freeman and a citizen of the said city, to have, to hold, to use, and enjoy the freedom of the city, together with all the benefits, privileges, franchises, and immunities whatsoever granted or belonging to the said city. By order of the mayor and aldermen. In testimony whereof the said mayor and aldermen have caused the seal of the said city to be hereunto affixed. Witness: De Witt Clinton, Esquire, Mayor, the fourth day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifteen, and of the Independence and sovereignty of the United States the thirty-ninth.

"DE WITT CLINTON."

This form of honor has been bestowed but seldom in the United States; in Europe, and especially in England and Scotland, it is frequently granted.

Freedom of Speech. The first amendment to the national Constitution, ratified in December, 1791, after forbidding Congress to make any law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, says, "or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people to peaceably assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances." This secures the invaluable right of utterance of opinions, and reserves to all citizens the privilege of making their grievances known to the national government. This is a privilege of American citizenship in striking contrast with European methods, and one that has been abused but seldom.

Freedom of the Press, The. See LOVEJOY, ELIJAH PARISH.

Freeman, FREDERICK, clergyman; born in Sandwich, Mass., in 1800; was ordained pastor of the Presbyterian Church in Plymouth, Mass., in 1823; subsequently took orders in the Protestant Episcopal Church. Among his works are a *History of Cape Cod; Annals of Barnstable County; Genealogy of the Freeman Family*, etc. He died in Sandwich, Mass., in 1883.

Freeman, MARY E. WILKINS. See WILKINS, MARY ELEANOR.

Freemasonry, a secret fraternal organization of which there is no certain information as to the time of its introduction into the United States. According to many Masonic writers a provincial grand lodge (St. John's) and also a private lodge were established at Boston, Mass., by Henry Price on July 30, 1733. Benjamin Franklin, who is supposed to have been initiated in England, published the Masonic constitution in 1734; and during the same year Henry Price was constituted grand master over all North America. On Nov. 4, 1752, George Washington became a member of the order and on Aug. 4, 1753, was made a Master Mason. The first Masonic hall in the United States was built in Philadelphia in 1754. The returns of the grand lodges of the United States and British America for 1909 were as follows: Whole number of members, 1,389,317; gain in membership over preceding year, 71,634. These grand lodges are in full affiliation with the English grand lodge, of which the Duke of Connaught is the grand master, and the grand lodges of Ireland, Scotland, Cuba, Peru, South Australia, New South Wales, and Victoria, and also with the Masons of Germany and Austria. They are not in affiliation and do not correspond with the Masons under the jurisdiction of the Grand Orient of France; they, however, affiliate with and recognize Masons under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Council.

Freemasonry is under the ban of the Church in Spain, Italy, and other Catholic countries, and the membership there is small and scattered.

Free Negroes. The alarm expressed in debates on the act prohibiting the slave-trade, in 1809, because of the increase and influence of free negroes, was manifested in the legislation of several States immediately afterwards. Indeed, such fears had existed earlier. In 1796 North Carolina passed an act prohibiting emancipation, except for meritorious services, and by allowance of the county courts. South Carolina had passed a similar act in 1800; also another act the same year, declaring it unlawful for any number of free negroes, mulattoes, or mestizoes to assemble together, even though in the presence of white persons. "for mental instruction or religious worship." There had been two alarms of insurrection in Virginia (1799 and 1801), and in 1805 the freedom of emancipation, allowed by an act in 1782, was substantially taken away by a provision that thenceforward emancipated slaves remaining in the State one year after obtaining their freedom should be apprehended and sold into slavery for the benefit of the poor of the county. Overseers of the poor, binding out black or mulatto orphans as apprentices, were forbidden to require their masters to teach them reading, writing, and arithmetic, as in the case of white orphans; and free blacks coming into the State were to be sent back to the places whence they came. The legislature of Kentucky in 1808 passed a law that free negroes coming into that State should give security to depart within twenty days, and on failure to do so should be sold for one year, the same process to be repeated, if, at the end of the year, they should be found in the State twenty days afterwards. This law remained in force until the breaking-out of the Civil War.

Free Postage. See FRANKING PRIVILEGE.

Free School System. See EDUCATION, ELEMENTARY; MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

Free Silver. The Constitution empowers Congress to coin money and to regulate the value of coins—that is, to say how much gold or silver shall be contained in each particular coin. The Constitution, therefore, assumes to give Congress power to fix and regulate values of silver and gold. As a matter of fact, Congress cannot fix this any more than it can fix the value of wheat. The two metals will fluctuate according to the varying supply or varying need for them. This inability to fix values arbitrarily has been proved over and over again in the financial history of the United States as well as in that of other countries.

The first coinage act of the United States government, adopted in 1792, prescribed a silver dollar weighing just fifteen times as much as a gold dollar. Immediately the gold coins began to disappear, as they were worth more as bullion than as coins. In 1834 Congress recognized this fact by changing the ratio to a silver dollar weighing just sixteen times as much as a gold dollar. The influx of gold from California and Australia soon destroyed this ratio and as a result jewelers, brokers, etc., found it profitable to melt up the silver coins as bullion. In 1853 Congress reduced the weight in the silver dollar to 384 grains, and ordered that no deposits of silver bullion would thereafter be received for coinage into fractional coins, as these were to be manufactured solely on government account from silver purchased for that purpose, these minor coins having a smaller bullion than coin value. Silver dollars, however, were coined up to 1873 for depositors of silver bullion, when by the act of that year this unlimited free coinage of silver dollars from bullion ceased. Congress, however, decreed the coining of a trade dollar containing 420 grains, which in reality was less than the value of one dollar in gold, and as a result silver was turned into the mints to be coined into trade dollars. Therefore, in 1876 by joint resolution of Congress, the coinage of trade dollars was prohibited excepting for export, and in 1878 the trade dollar was discontinued by the mints, but regular dollars were to be coined not less than 2,000,000 or more than 4,000,000 per month. This law was repealed in 1890. See BRYAN, WILLIAM J.; EVARTS, WILLIAM MAXWELL; MONETARY REFORM; MORRILL, JUSTIN S.

Freeport Doctrine. A declaration of Stephen A. Douglas during his debate with Lincoln in 1858 to the question, "Can the people of a United States Territory in any lawful way exclude slavery from its limits, prior to the formation of a State Institution?" Whatever answer Douglas might make was sure to offend one section of the United States or the other. To refuse to answer would be foolish and cowardly. Lincoln's friends begged him to withdraw the question, as Douglas would be sure to answer in a way friendly to the North, and if so Douglas would surely win the Senatorship. Lincoln replied: "I am after larger game. If Douglas answers as you say he will, he can never be President, and the battle of 1860 is worth a hundred of this."

Douglas did answer in favor of the Northern view. He won the Senatorship, but this "Freeport Doctrine," as it came to be known, offended the South, and in 1860 the South refused to accept Douglas as the candidate of the Democratic party, and in consequence the party was divided and the Republicans elected Lincoln in the campaign of 1860.

Free-soil Party, a political party founded in 1848 upon the principle of the non-extension of the slave system in the Territories. It was an outgrowth of the LIBERTY PARTY (*q. v.*) of 1840. The immediate cause of its organization was the acquisition of new territory at the close of the war with Mexico, which would, if not prevented, become slave territory. The Southern leaders up to about this time had recognized that slavery was an evil, and deplored its existence, but the growth of this Free-soil party alarmed them. In a bill appropriating money for the negotiation of peace with Mexico, submitted to Congress in 1846, DAVID WILMOT (*q. v.*), a Democratic member from Pennsylvania, offered an amendment, "*Provided*, that there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in any Terri-

tory on the continent of America which shall hereafter be acquired by or annexed to the United States by virtue of this appropriation, or in any other manner, except for crime," etc. It was carried in the House, but failed in the Senate; and in the next session it was defeated in both branches. This was the famous "Wilmot Proviso."

Resolutions to this effect were offered in both the Democratic and the Whig conventions in 1846, but were rejected. A consequence of such rejection was a considerable secession of prominent men, and many others, from both parties, especially in Massachusetts, New York, and Ohio. In New York the seceding Democrats were called "BARNBURNERS" (*q. v.*) and the two classes of seceders combined were called "Free-soilers." The two combined, and at a convention held at Buffalo, Aug. 9, 1848, they formed the Free-soil party. The convention was composed of delegates from all the free-labor States, and from Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and the District of Columbia. They nominated MARTIN VAN BUREN (*q. v.*) for President of the United States, and CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS (*q. v.*) for Vice-President. The ticket received a popular anti-slavery vote of 291,000, but did not receive a single electoral vote. The Free-soil Convention at Pittsburg in 1852 nominated JOHN P. HALE (*q. v.*) for President, and GEORGE W. JULIAN (*q. v.*) for Vice-President, who received a popular vote of 157,000. The compromise measures of 1850, and the virtual repeal of the MISSOURI COMPROMISE (*q. v.*) in the act for the creation of the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska in 1854, greatly increased the strength of the Free-soil party, and it formed the nucleus of the historical Republican party in 1856, when the Free-soilers, as a distinct party, disappeared.

Free Ships, Free Goods, doctrine held by the United States that all goods, whether the property of neutrals or belligerents, are to be exempted from capture on neutral vessels, unless such goods are contraband of war. Great Britain refused to accept this view, and the War of 1812 was the result. The question was not settled by the Treaty of Ghent, but in 1856 the signatories to the Declaration of Paris agreed that enemies' goods in neutral ships and neutral goods in enemies' ships should be exempt from capture, and that privateering was abolished. This was acceded to by the United States, although the Declaration as a whole was not accepted.

Free Society of Traders. In 1682 William Penn sold this Welsh colonization company 20,000 acres of land in Pennsylvania. He granted them the "Manor of Frank" with special local self-government privileges.

Free-thinkers. The freedom of thought and expression on theological subjects which now happily prevails did not exist in the eighteenth century. Then a person who openly opposed the accepted tenets of orthodoxy was ostracized, and hence it is that, even in this day, Franklin and Jefferson are sometimes spoken of as infidels (that is, opposers of the Christian religion), a charge cruelly unjust. They were simply free-thinkers, men who indulged in the exercise of reason in dealing with the theology of the day. The first American free-thinker was Jeremiah Dummer, for many years colonial agent in England of Connecticut, and author of the *Defence of the New England Charters.* Franklin was one of his converts, yet never carried his views so far as to deny, as Dummer did, the supernatural origin of the Christian religion. Franklin was no propagandist of his peculiar theological views. He thought religion necessary for the good of individuals and society, ostensibly adhered to the Church of England, and never countenanced attacks upon current religious ideas. The first work of a free-thinker published in America was Ethan Allen's *Oracles of Religion.* From passages in his *Notes on Virginia,* published in London, 1787, it is evident that Jefferson was of similar mind in many things, yet his views of the necessity and gooodness of the Christian religion were similar to those of Franklin. Paine was of an entirely different stamp. He made attacks upon the Christian religion, and nothing seemed too sacred in the later years of his life to escape the wrath of his pen. His attack upon Washington and his scoffing essay against Christianity left his otherwise bright name under a cloud.

Free Thought. On the general subject of the growth of Free Thought with special reference to the United States, we present a condensation of Professor Goldwin Smith's views.

The history of religion during the past century may be described as the sequel of that dissolution of the mediæval faith which commenced at the Reformation.

At the Reformation Protestantism threw off the yoke of pope and priest, priestly control over conscience through the confessional, priestly absolution for sin, and belief in the magical power of the priest as consecrator of the Host, besides the worship of the Virgin and the saints, purgatory, relics, pilgrimages, and other incidents of the mediæval system.

Though Protestantism produced a multitude of sects, especially in England at the time of the Commonwealth, hardly any of them were free-thinking or sceptical; those of any importance, at all events, were in some sense dogmatic, and were anchored to the inspiration of the Bible.

Under the Restoration religious thought and controversy slept. The nation was weary of those subjects. The liberty for which men then struggled was political, though with political liberty was bound up religious toleration, which achieved a partial triumph under William III.

The Church of Rome, to meet the storm of the Reformation, reorganized herself at the Council of Trent on lines practically traced for her by the Jesuit. Papal autocracy was strengthened at the expense of the episcopate, and furnished at once with a guard and a propagandist machinery of extraordinary power in the order of Loyola. That the plenary inspiration of the Bible in the Vulgate version, and including the Apocrypha, should be reaffirmed was a secondary matter, inasmuch as the Church of Rome holds that it is not she who derives her credentials from Scripture, but Scripture which depends for the attestation of its authority upon her.

Of the disintegrating forces criticism—the higher criticism, as it is the fashion to call it—has by no means been the only one. Another, and perhaps in recent times the more powerful, has been science, from which Voltaire and the earlier sceptics received little or no assistance in their attacks; for they were unable to meet even the supposed testimony of fossils to the Flood. It is curious that the bearing of the Newtonian astronomy on the Biblical cosmography should not have been before perceived; most curious that it should have escaped Newton himself. His system plainly contravened the idea which made the earth the centre of the universe, with heaven above and hell below it, and by which the cosmography alike of the Old and the New Testament is pervaded. The first destructive blow from the region of science was perhaps dealt by geology, which showed that the earth had been gradually formed, not suddenly created, that its antiquity immeasurably transcended the orthodox chronology, and that death had come into the world long before man. Geologists, scared by the echoes of their own teaching, were fain to shelter themselves under allegorical interpretations of Genesis totally foreign to the intentions of the writer; making out the "days" of Creation to be æons, a version which, even if accepted, would not have accounted for the entrance of death into the world before the creation of man. Many will recollect the shifts to which science had recourse in its efforts to avoid collision with the cosmogony supposed to have been dictated by the Creator to the reputed author of the Pentateuch.

The grand catastrophe, however, was the discovery of Darwin. This assailed the belief that man was a distinct creation, apart from all other animals, with an immortal soul specially breathed into him by the author of his being. It showed that he had been developed by a natural process out of lower forms of life. It showed that instead of a fall of man there had been a gradual rise, thus cutting away the ground of the Redemption and the Incarnation, the fundamental doctrines of the orthodox creed. For the hypothesis of creation generally was substituted that of evolution by some unknown but natural force.

Not only to revealed or supernatural but to natural religion a heavy blow was dealt by the disclosure of wasted æons and abortive species which seem to preclude the idea of an intelligent and omnipotent designer.

The chief interpreters of science in its

bearing on religion were, in England, Tyndall and Huxley. Tyndall always declared himself a materialist, though no one could less deserve the name if it implied anything like grossness or disregard of the higher sentiments. He startled the world by his declaration that matter contained the potentiality of all life, an assertion which, though it has been found difficult to prove experimentally, there can be less difficulty in accepting, since we see life in rudimentary forms and in different stages of development. Huxley wielded a trenchant pen and was an uncompromising servant of truth. A bitter controversy between him and Owen arose out of Owen's tendency to compromise. He came at one time to the extreme conclusion that man was an automaton, which would have settled all religious and moral questions out of hand; but in this he seemed afterwards to feel that he had gone too far. An automaton automatically reflecting on its automatic character is a being which seems to defy conception. The connection of action with motive, of motive with character and circumstance, is what nobody doubts; but the precise nature of the connection, as it is not subject, like a physical connection, to our inspection, defies scrutiny, and our consciousness, which is our only informant, tells that our agency in some qualified sense is free.

The all-embracing philosophy of Mr. Herbert Spencer excludes not only the supernatural but theism in its ordinary form. Yet theism in a subtle form may be thought to lurk in it. "By continually seeking," he says, "to know, and being continually thrown back with a deepened conviction of the impossibility of knowing, we may keep alive the consciousness that it is alike our highest wisdom and our highest duty to regard that through which all things exist as the Unknowable." Unknowableness in itself excites no reverence, even though it be supposed infinite and eternal. Nothing excites our reverence but a person, or at least a moral being.

Religion passed from Old to New England in the form of a refugee Protestantism of the most intensely Biblical and the most austere kind. It had, notably in Connecticut, a code of moral and social law which, if fully carried into effect, must have fearfully darkened life. It produced in Jonathan Edwards the philosopher of Calvinism, from the meshes of whose predestinarian logic it has been found difficult to escape, though all such reasonings are practically rebutted by our indefeasible consciousness of freedom of choice and of responsibility as attendant thereon. New England Puritanism was intolerant, even persecuting; but the religious founder and prophet of Rhode Island proclaimed the principles of perfect toleration and of the entire separation of the Church from the State. The ice of New England Puritanism was gradually thawed by commerce, non-Puritan immigration from the old country, and social influences, as much as by the force of intellectual emancipation; though in founding universities and schools it had in fact prepared for its own ultimate subversion. Unitarianism was a half-way house through which Massachusetts passed into thorough-going liberalism such as we find in Emerson, Thoreau, and the circle of Brook Farm; and afterwards into the iconoclasm of Ingersoll. The only Protestant Church of much importance to which the New World has given birth is the Universalist, a natural offspring of democratic humanity revolting against the belief in eternal fire. Enthusiasm unilluminated may still hold its camp-meetings and sing "Rock of Ages" in the grove under the stars.

The main support of orthodox Protestantism in the United States now is an off-shoot from the old country. It is Methodism, which, by the perfection of its organization, combining strong ministerial authority with a democratic participation of all members in the active service of the Church, has so far not only held its own but enlarged its borders and increased its power; its power, perhaps, rather than its spiritual influence, for the time comes when the fire of enthusiasm grows cold and class-meetings lose their fervor. The membership is mostly drawn from a class little exposed to the disturbing influences of criticism or science; nor has the education of the ministers hitherto been generally such as to bring them into contact with the arguments of the sceptic.

In the United States at the beginning of the nineteenth century there were faint relics of state churches—churches, that is, recognized and protected, though not endowed by the state. But there had been little to irritate scepticism or provoke it to violence of any kind, and the transition has accordingly been tranquil. Speculation, however, has now arrived at a point at which its results in the minds of the more inquiring clergy come into collision with the dogmatic creeds of their churches and their ordination tests. Especially does awakened conscience rebel against the ironclad Calvinism of the Westminster Confession. Hence attempts, hitherto baffled, to revise the creeds; hence heresy trials, scandalous and ineffective.

Who can undertake to say how far religion now influences the inner life of the American people? Outwardly life in the United States, in the Eastern States at least, is still religious. Churches are well maintained, congregations are full, offertories are liberal. It is still respectable to be a church-goer. Anglicanism, partly from its connection with the English hierarchy, is fashionable among the wealthy in cities. We note, however, that in all pulpits there is a tendency to glide from the spiritual into the social, if not into the material; to edge away from the pessimistic view of the present world with which the Gospels are instinct; to attend less exclusively to our future, and more to our present state. Social reunions, picnics, and side-shows are growing in importance as parts of the church system. Jonathan Edwards, if he could now come among his people, would hardly find himself at home.

In French Canada the Catholic Church has reigned over a simple peasantry, her own from the beginning, thoroughly submissive to the priesthood, willing to give freely of its little store for the building of churches which tower over the hamlet, and sufficiently firm in its faith to throng to the fane of St. Anne Beaupré for miracles of healing. She has kept the *habitant* ignorant and unprogressive, but made him, after her rule, moral, insisting on early marriage, on remarriage, controlling his habits and amusements with an almost Puritan strictness. Probably French Canada has been as good and as happy as anything the Catholic Church had to show. From fear of New England Puritanism it had kept its people loyal to Great Britain during the Revolutionary War. From fear of French atheism it kept its people loyal to Great Britain during the war with France. It sang *Te Deum* for Trafalgar. So things were till the other day. But then came the Jesuit. He got back, from the subserviency of the Canadian politicians, the lands which he had lost after the conquest and the suppression of his order. He supplanted the Gallicans, captured the hierarchy, and prevailed over the great Sulpician Monastery in a struggle for the pastorate of Montreal. Other influences have of late been working for change in a direction neither Gallican nor Jesuit. Railroads have broken into the rural seclusion which favored the ascendency of the priest. Popular education has made some way. Newspapers have increased in number and are more read. The peasant has been growing restive under the burden of tithe and *fabrique*. Many of the *habitants* go into the Northern States of the Union for work, and return to their own country bringing with them republican ideas. Americans who have been shunning continental union from dread of French-Canadian popery may lay aside their fears.

It was a critical moment for the Catholic Church when she undertook to extend her domain to the American Republic. She had there to encounter a genius radically opposed to her own. The remnant of Catholic Maryland could do little to help her on her landing. But she came in force with the flood of Irish, and afterwards of South German, emigration. How far she has been successful in holding these her lieges would be a question difficult to decide, as it would involve a rather impalpable distinction between formal membership and zealous attachment. In America, as in England, ritualism has served Roman Catholicism as a tender. The critical question was how the religion of the Middle Ages could succeed in making itself at home under the roof of a democratic republic, the animating spirit of which was freedom, intellectual and spiritual as well as political, while the wit of its people was pro-

verbially keen and their nationality was jealous as well as strong. The papacy may call itself universal; in reality, it is Italian. During its sojourn in the French dominions the popes were French: otherwise they have been Italians, native or domiciled, with the single exception of the Flemish Adrian VI., thrust into the chair of St. Peter by his pupil, Charles V., and by the Italians treated with contumely as an alien intruder. The great majority of the cardinals always has been and still is Italian. She has not thrust the intolerance and obscurantism of the encyclical in the face of the disciples of Jefferson. She has paid all due homage to republican institutions, alien though they are to her own spirit, as her uniform action in European politics hitherto has proved. She has made little show of relics. She has abstained from miracles. The adoration of Mary and the saints, though of course fully maintained, appears to be less prominent. Compared with the mediæval cathedral and its multiplicity of side chapels, altars, and images, the cathedral at New York strikes one as the temple of a somewhat rationalized version. Yet between the spirit of American nationality, even in the most devout Catholic, and that of the Jesuit or the native liegeman of Rome, there cannot fail to be an opposition more or less acute, though it may be hidden as far as possible under a decent veil. This was seen in the case of Father Hecker, who had begun his career as a Socialist at Brook Farm, and, as a convert to Catholicism, founded a missionary order, the keynote of which was that "man's life in the natural and secular order of things is marching towards freedom and personal independence." This he described as a radical change, and a radical change it undoubtedly was from the sentiments and the system of Loyola. Condemnation by Rome could not fail to follow. Education has evidently been the scene of a subterranean conflict between the Jesuit and the more liberal, or, what is much the same thing, the more American section. The American and liberal head of a college has been deposed, under decorous pretences, it is true, but still deposed. In the American or any other branch of the Roman Catholic Church freedom of inquiry and advance in thought are of course impossible. Nothing is possible but immobility, or reaction such as that of the syllabus. Dr. Brownson, like Hecker, a convert, showed after his conversion something of the spirit of free inquiry belonging to his former state, though rather in the line of philosophy than in that of theology, properly speaking. But if he ever departed from orthodoxy he returned to it and made a perfectly edifying end.

Such is the position in which at the close of the nineteenth century Christendom seems to have stood. Outside the pale of reason—of reason; we do not say of truth—were the Roman Catholic and Eastern Churches; the Roman Catholic Church resting on tradition, sacerdotal authority, and belief in present miracles; the Eastern Church supported by tradition, sacerdotal authority, nationality, and the power of the Czar. Scepticism had not eaten into a church, preserved, like that of Russia, by its isolation and intellectual torpor; though some wild sects had been generated, and Nihilism, threatening with destruction the church as well as the state, had appeared on the scene. Into the Roman Catholic Church scepticism had eaten deeply, and had detached from her, or was rapidly detaching, the intellect of educated nations, while she seemed resolutely to bid defiance to reason by her syllabus, her declaration of papal infallibility, her proclamation of the immaculate conception of Mary. Outside the pale of traditional authority and amenable to reason stood the Protestant churches, urgently pressed by a question as to the sufficiency of the evidences of supernatural Christianity—above all, of its vital and fundamental doctrines: the fall of man, the incarnation, and the resurrection. The Anglican Church, a fabric of policy compounded of Catholicism without a pope and biblical Protestantism, was in the throes of a struggle between those two elements, largely antiquarian and of little importance compared with the vital question as to the evidences of revelation and the divinity of Christ.

In the Protestant churches generally æstheticism had prevailed. Even the most austere of them had introduced church

art, flowers, and tasteful music; a tendency which, with the increased craving for rhetorical novelty in the pulpit, seemed to show that the simple Word of God and the glad tidings of salvation were losing their power, and that human attractions were needed to bring congregations together.

The last proposal had been that dogma, including the belief in the divinity of Christ, having become untenable, should be abandoned, and that there should be formed a Christian Church with a ritual and sacraments, but without the Christian creed, though still looking up to Christ as its founder and teacher; an organization which, having no definite object and being held together only by individual fancy, would not be likely to last long.

The task now imposed on the liegemen of reason seems to be that of reviewing reverently, but freely and impartially, the evidences both of supernatural Christianity and of theism, frankly rejecting what is untenable, and if possible laying new and sounder foundations in its place. To estimate the gravity of the crisis we have only to consider to how great an extent our civilization has hitherto rested on religion. It may be found that after all our being is an insoluble mystery. If it is, we can only acquiesce and make the best of our present habitation; but who can say what the advance of knowledge may bring forth? Effort seems to be the law of our nature, and if continued it may lead to heights beyond our present ken. In any event, unless our inmost nature lies to us, to cling to the untenable is worse than useless; there can be no salvation for us but in truth.

FREE TRADE

Free Trade. William Ewart Gladstone, several times Prime Minister of England, wrote the following plea for Free Trade, to which a reply was made by James G. Blaine, which will be found in the article on PROTECTION:

The existing difference of practice between America and Britain with respect to free trade and protection of necessity gives rise to a kind of international controversy on their respective merits. To interfere from across the water in such a controversy is an act which may wear the appearance of impertinence. It is *prima facie* an intrusion by a citizen of one country into the domestic affairs of another, which as a rule must be better judged of by denizens than by foreigners. Nay, it may even seem a rather violent intrusion; for the sincere advocate of one of the two systems cannot speak of what he deems to be the demerits of the other otherwise than in broad and trenchant terms. In this case, however, it may be said that something of reciprocal reproach is implied in the glaring contrast between the legislation of the two countries, apart from any argumentative exposition of its nature. And where should an Englishman look for weapons to be used against protection, or an American for weapons to be wielded in its favor, except in America and England respectively?

This sentiment received, during a late Presidential struggle, a lively illustration in practice. An American gentleman, Mr. N. McKay, of New York, took, according to the proverb, the bull by the horns. He visited Great Britain, made what he considered to be an inspection of the employments, wages, and condition of the people, and reported the result to his countrymen, while they were warm with the animation of the national contest, under the doleful titles of *Free-Trade Toilers* and *Starvation Wages for Men and Women.* He was good enough to forward to me a copy of his most interesting tract, and he did me the further honor to address to me a letter covering the pamphlet. He challenged an expression of my opinion on the results of free trade in England and on "the relative value of free trade and protection to the English-speaking people."

There was an evident title thus to call upon me, because I had, many years since, given utterance to an opinion then and now sincerely entertained. I thought, and

each of the rolling years teaches me more and more fixedly to think, that in international transactions the British nation for the present enjoys a commercial primacy; that no country in the world shows any capacity to wrest it from us, except it be America; that, if America shall frankly adopt and steadily maintain a system of free trade, she will by degrees, perhaps not slow degrees, outstrip us in the race, and will probably take the place which at present belongs to us; but that she will not injure us by the operation. On the contrary, she will do us good. Her freedom of trade will add to our present commerce and our present wealth, so that we shall be better than we now are.

It would have been impertinent in me, and on other grounds impolitic, to accept the invitation of Mr. McKay while the Presidential contest was yet pending. But all the agencies in that great election have now done their work, and protection has obtained her victory. Be she the loveliest and most fruitful mother of the wealth of nations, or be she an impostor and a swindler, distinguished from other swindlers mainly by the vast scale of her operations, she no longer stands within the august shadow of the election, and she must take her chance in the arena of discussion as a common combatant, entitled to free speech and to fair treatment, but to nothing more. So that the citizens of two countries long friendly, and evidently destined to yet closer friendliness, may now calmly and safely pursue an argument which, from either of the opposing points of view, has the most direct bearing on the wealth, comfort, and well-being of the people on both sides of the water.

The appeal of the champion whose call has brought me into the field is very properly made "to the wage-earners of the United States." He exhibits the deplorable condition of the British workingman, and asks whether our commercial supremacy is not upheld at his expense. The constant tenor of the argument is this: High wages by protection, low wages by free trade. It is even as the recurring burden of a song. Now, it sometimes happens that, while we listen to a melody presented to us as new, the idea gradually arises in the mind, "I have heard this before." And I can state with truth that I have heard this very same melody before; nay, that I am familiar with it. It comes to us now with a pleasant novelty; but once upon a time we British folk were surfeited, nay, almost bored to death, with it. It is simply the old song of our squires, which they sang with perfect assurance to defend the corn laws, first from within the fortress of an unreformed Parliament, and then for a good many years more, with their defences fatally and fast crumbling before their eyes, after Parliament had been reformed. Mr. McKay and protection, now made vocal in him, terrify the American workman by threatening him with the wages of his British comrade, precisely as the English landlord coaxed our rural laborers, when we used to get our best wheats from Dantzig, by exhibiting the starvation wages of the Polish peasant.

But there is also a variation in the musical phrase. Our low wages, it is said, form the basis of our cheap production. So it is desired, as Mr. McKay apprises me, to "get some relief from the American government"; by which I understand that he calls for more protection. For example: I have learned that turfs are occasionally sent from Ireland to America to supply the Irish immigrant with a rude memorial of the country he was forced to leave, but has not ceased to love; and that these turfs are dear to his affectionate patriotism, and have been bought by him at prices relatively high. But they are charged (I am told) as unenumerated articles, at 15 per cent. on the value. I hope there is no strong turbary interest in America, for I gather that, to secure high wages to the diggers, you would readily, and quite consistently, raise this, say, to 25. The protective argument, however, at this stage rather is, How can the capitalist engaged in manufacture compete with his British rival, who obtains labor at half the price? But this also is to us neither more nor less than the repetition of an old and familiar strain. The argument is so plausible that, in the early days of our well-known corn-law controversy, it commended itself even to some of the first champions of repeal. They pointed out that during the great French war the

trade of our manufacturers was secured by our possession of the sea; but that when, by the establishment of peace, that became an open highway, it was impossible for our manufacturers, who had to pay their workmen wages based upon protection prices for bread as the first necessary of life, any longer to compete with the cheap bread and cheap labor of the Continent. And, in truth, they could show that their trade was at the time, to a great extent, either stationary or even receding. These arguments were made among us, in the alleged interest of labor and of capital, just as they are now employed by you; for America may at present be said to diet on the cast-off reasonings of English protectionism. They were so specious that they held the field until the genius of Cobden recalled us from conventional phrases to natural laws, and until a series of bad harvests (about 1838–41) had shown the British workman that what enhanced the price of his bread had no corresponding power to raise the rate of his wages, but distinctively tended to depress them.

Let me now mark the exact point to which we have advanced. Like a phonograph of Mr. Edison, the American protectionist simply repeats on his side of the Atlantic what has been first and often, and long ago, said on ours. Under protection our wages were, on the whole, higher than those of the Continent. Under protection American wages are higher than those of Great Britain. We then argued, *post hoc, ergo propter hoc.* He now argues (just listen to his phonograph), *post hoc, ergo propter hoc.* But our experience has proceeded a stage further than that of the American people. Despite the low wages of the Continent, we broke down every protective wall and flooded the country (so the phrase then ran) with the corn and the commodities of the whole world; with the corn of America first and foremost. But did our rates of wages thereupon sink to the level of the Continent? Or did it rise steadily and rapidly to a point higher than had been ever known before?

That the American rate of wages is higher than ours I concede. Some, at least, of the causes of this most gratifying fact I shall endeavor to acknowledge. My enumeration may be sufficient or may be otherwise. Whether it be exhaustive or not, the facts will of themselves tend to lay upon protectionism the burden of establishing, by something more than mere concomitancy, a casual relation between commercial restraint and wages relatively high. But what if, besides doing this, I show (and it is easy) that wages which may have been partially and relatively high under protection, have become both generally and absolutely higher, and greatly higher, under free trade?

That protection may coexist with high wages, that it may not of itself neutralize all the gifts and favors of nature, that it does not as a matter of course make a rich country into a poor one—all this may be true, but is nothing to the point. The true question is whether protection offers us the way to the maximum of attainable wage. This can only be done by raising to the utmost attainable height the fund out of which wages and profits alike are drawn. If its tendency is not to increase, but to diminish, that fund, then protection is a bar to high wages, not their cause; and is, therefore, the enemy, not the friend, of the classes on whose wages their livelihood depends. This is a first outline of the propositions which I shall endeavor to unfold and to bring home.

Mr. McKay greatly relied upon a representation which he has given as to the rate of wages in England. It is only incidental to the main discussion, for the subject of this paper is not England, but America. Yet it evidently requires to be dealt with; and I shall deal with it broadly, though briefly, asking leave to contest alike the inferences and the facts which he presents. My contention on this head will be twofold. First, he has been misled as to the actual rate of wages in England. Secondly, the question is not whether that rate is lower than the rate in America, nor even whether the American workman (and this is a very different matter) is always better off than the workman in England. It is, What are English wages now under free trade, compared with what they formerly were under protection?

And first, as to the actual rates in par-

ticular cases to which he has referred, I must draw a line between the case of the English chain-makers, on which he has dwelt, and the case of the great coal industry, of which he has taken the town of Wigan as a sample.

In an old society like this, with an indefinite variety of occupations, there are usually some which lie, as it were, out of the stream, and which represent the traditions of a former time, or peculiarities of circumstance, not yet touched by that quickening breath of freedom in trade and labor under which I shall show it to be unquestionable that an overwhelming proportion of our population have found their way to a great and, indeed, extraordinary improvement. In particular, we may expect to find a lamentable picture in those cases where hand labor is destined to be supplanted by machinery, but where the transition, though at hand, has not yet taken effect. These chain-makers are represented as earning, man and wife together, $4 per week. Small as is this amount, it would not have drawn on that account the least notice in the days when humanity took its standards from the facts supplied by protection. Under the present circumstances, it happens to have attracted marked attention in Parliament, and elsewhere, and I believe that it is at this very time the subject of public inquiry. But the true answer to the argument from isolated cases is that there is no relation whatever between the condition of this or that small, antiquated, and solitary employment, and the general condition of our wage-earning population.

It is otherwise, however, with reference to Wigan. Employment at this important centre is subject to the economical currents of the time, and undoubtedly the facts it may exhibit must be held to bear upon the general question of the condition of the people. But it so happens that I have the best means of obtaining information about Wigan, and I had better state at once that I am at issue with Mr. McKay's report upon the facts. The statements made by him have doubtless done their work; but it is still a matter of interest to clear up the truth. The steeple, of which he declares that the parish church has been denuded, never, as I am assured, had any existence. The temperature in Rosebridge mine, which he states at 93°, does not exceed 70°. The wages of men are not 3*s.* a day, but vary from a minimum of 3*s.* 3*d.* up to the sum of 4*s.* 6*d.* The minimum for women on the bank is not 1*s.*, but 1*s.* 6*d.*, and the maximum not 1*s.* 9*d.*, but 2*s.* Yards such as he estimates at 45 inches wide are forbidden by by-laws of the local board issued in 1883, and similar laws issued in 1860 require that cottages shall have an open space, at the rear or side, of not less than 150 square feet. Barrows are not in use for wheeling coal underground. In a word, so far as the only place I have been able to make the subject of examination is concerned, the accuracy of the supposed statements of fact is contested all along the line by persons on the spot, whom I know to be of the highest trustworthiness and authority.

We are, however, happily in a condition to bring upon the arena evidence of far higher moment than assertions or denials founded upon a few rapid glances of a traveller, even had he not been laden with a foregone conclusion, or than denials offered against those assertions. So far as Great Britain is concerned, it is obvious enough to what point we should address our inquiries, if they are to be of any serious force in determining by results the controversy upon the respective merits of protection and free trade. We must endeavor to ascertain the general rate of wages now, in comparison with what it was under the protective system, and with constant regard to the cost of living as exhibited by the prices of commodities.

And, in order to try the question for this country at large, whether free trade has been a curse or a blessing to the people who inhabit it, I shall repair at once to our highest authority, Mr. Giffen, of the board of trade, whose careful and comprehensive disquisitions are before the world, and are known to command, in a very high degree, the public confidence. He supplies us with tables which compare the wages of 1833 with those of 1883 in such a way as to speak for the principal branches of industry, with the exception of agricultural labor. The wages of miners, we learn, have increased

in Staffordshire (which, almost certainly, is the mining district of lowest increment) by 50 per cent. In the great exportable manufactures of Bradford and Huddersfield, the lowest augmentations are 20 and 30 per cent., and in other branches they rise to 50, 83, 100, and even to 150 and 160 per cent. The quasi-domestic trades of carpenters, bricklayers, and masons, in the great marts of Glasgow and Manchester, show a mean increase of 63 per cent. for the first, 65 per cent. for the second, and 47 per cent. for the third. The lowest weekly wage named for an adult is 22*s.* (as against 17*s.* in 1833), and the highest 36*s.* But it is the relative rate with which we have to do; and, as the American writer appears to contemplate with a peculiar dread the effect of free trade upon shipping, I further quote Mr. Giffen on the monthly wages of seamen in 1833 and 1883, in Bristol, Glasgow, Liverpool, and London. The percentage of increase, since we have passed from the protective system of the navigation law into free trade, is, in Bristol, 66 per cent.; in Glasgow, 55 per cent.; in Liverpool (for different classes), from 25 per cent. to 70 per cent.; and in London, from 45 per cent. to 69 per cent. Mr. Giffen has given the figures in all the cases where he could be sufficiently certain of exactitude. No such return, at once exact and comprehensive, can be supplied in the case of the rural workman. But here the facts are notorious. We are assured that there has been a universal rise (somewhat checked, I fear, by the recent agricultural distress), which Caird and other authorities place at 60 per cent. Mr. Giffen apparently concurs; and, so far as my own personal sphere of observation reaches, I can with confidence confirm the estimate and declare it to be moderate. Together with this increase of pay, there has been a general diminution of the hours of work, which Mr. Giffen places at one-fifth. If we make this correction upon the comparative table, we shall find that the cases are very few in which the increment does not range as high as from 50 and towards 100 per cent.

In a later essay, of January, 1886, Mr. Giffen touches the case of the unskilled laborer. He observes that the aggregate proportion of unskilled to skilled labor has diminished—a fact which of itself forcibly exhibits the advance of the laboring population as a whole. I will not enter upon details; but his general conclusion is this: the improvement is from 70 to 90 per cent. in the wages of unskilled non-agricultural labor. And again, comparing the laborer with the capitalist between 1843 and 1883, he estimates that, while the income from capital has risen in this country from £190,000,000 to £400,000,000, or by 210 per cent., the working-class income, below the standard which entails liability to income-tax, has risen from £235,000,000 to £620,000,000, or at the rate of 160 per cent. Within the same period the prices of the main articles of popular consumption have not increased, but have certainly declined. The laborer's charges, except for his abode, have actually diminished as a whole. For his larger house-rent he has a better house. To the government he pays much less than he did, and from the government he gets much more; and "the increase of his money wages corresponds to a real gain."

Such, then, have been the economical results of free trade as compared with protection. Of its political, moral, and social results, at least so far as they regard the masses of the people, an account in no way less satisfactory could be given, were this the proper occasion for entering on the subject. If it be said that the tale I have told is insufficient, and that wages ought still to rise, this may be so; and rise I hope they will; but protection had no such tale to tell at all. For the working population at large it meant stagnation, depression, in many cases actual and daily hunger and thirst, in some unquestionable and even gross degradation. I will venture to say that, taking the case as a whole, it would be difficult to match in history the picture which Great Britain now presents of progress, achieved mainly through wise laws, from stinted means and positive want towards comfort and abundance for the people.

With a view to presenting the argument for leaving trade to the operation of natural laws in the simplest manner, I shall begin with some postulates which I suppose to be incapable of dispute.

International commerce is based, not upon arbitrary or fanciful considerations, but upon the unequal distribution among men and regions of aptitudes to produce the several commodities which are necessary or useful for the sustenance, comfort, and advantage of human life.

If every country produced all commodities with exactly the same degree of facility or cheapness, it would be contrary to common-sense to incur the charge of sending them from one country to another.

But the inequalities are so great that (for example) region A can supply region B with many articles of food, and region B can in return supply region A with many articles of clothing, at such rates that, although in each case the charge of transmission has of necessity been added to the first cost, the respective articles can be sold after importation at a lower rate than if they were home-grown or home-manufactured in the one or the other country respectively.

The relative cost, in each case, of production and transmission, as compared with domestic production, supplies, while all remain untrammelled by state law, a rule, motive, or main-spring of distribution which may be termed natural.

The argument of the free-trader is that the legislator ought never to interfere, or only to interfere so far as imperative fiscal necessity may require it, with this natural law of distribution.

All interference with it by a government in order to encourage some dearer method of production at home, in preference to a cheaper method of production abroad, may fairly be termed artificial. And every such interference means simply a diminution of the national wealth. If region A grows corn at home for 50*s.* with which region B can supply it at 40*s.*, and region B manufactures cloth at 20*s.* with which region A can supply it at 15*s.*, the national wealth of each is diminished by the 10*s.* and the 5*s.* respectively.

And the capitalists and laborers in each of these countries have so much the less to divide into their respective shares, in that competition between capital and labor which determines the distribution between them of the price brought in the market by commodities.

In my view, and I may say for my countrymen in our view, protection, however dignified by the source from which it proceeds, is essentially an invitation to waste, promulgated with the authority of law. It may be more violent and prohibitory, or it may be less; but, up to the point to which it goes, it is a promise given to dear production to shield it against the competition of cheap production, or given to dearer production to hold it harmless against cheaper; to secure for it a market it could not otherwise hold, and to enable it to exact from the consumer a price which he would not otherwise pay.

Protection says to a producer, Grow this or manufacture that at a greater necessary outlay, though we might obtain it more cheaply from abroad, where it can be produced at a smaller necessary outlay. This is saying, in other words, waste a certain amount of labor and of capital; and do not be afraid, for the cost of your waste shall be laid on the shoulders of a nation which is well able to bear it. So much for the waste unavoidably attaching to dearness of production. But there are other and yet worse descriptions of waste, as to which I know not whether America suffers greatly from them, but I know that in this country we suffered from them grievously under the sway of protection. When the barrier erected by a protective duty is so high that no foreigner can overleap it, that duty enables the home manufacturer not only to charge a high price, but to force on the consumer a bad article. Thus, with an extravagant duty on foreign corks, we had for our own use the worst corks in Europe. And yet again, protection causes waste of another kind in a large class of cases. Suppose the natural disadvantages of the home producer to equal 15 per cent., but the protective duty to be 30. But cheapness requires minute care, economy, and despatch at all the stages through which production has to pass. This minute care and thrift depend mainly on the pressure of competition. There were among us, and there may be elsewhere, many producers whom indolence tempts to neglect; who are not sufficiently drawn to resist this *inertia* by the attraction of raising profit to a maximum; for whom the prospect of advantage is not enough without the sense of

necessity, and whom nothing can spur to a due nimbleness of movement except the fear of not being able to sell their articles. In the case I have supposed, the second 15 per cent. is a free margin whereupon this indolence may disport itself: the home producer is not only covered for what he wastes through necessity, but for what he wastes from negligence or choice; and his fellow-countrymen, the public, have to pay alike for both. We suffered grievously from this in England, for oftentimes the rule of the producer is, or was, to produce not as well as he can, but as badly as he can, and as well only as he must. And happy are you if, through keener energy or more troublesome conscience in production, you have no similar suffering in America.

If protection could be equally distributed all around, then it would be fair as between class and class. But it cannot possibly be thus distributed in any country until we have discovered a country which will not find its interest in exporting some commodity or other. For the price of that commodity at home must be determined by its price in foreign or unprotected markets, and therefore, even if protective duties are inscribed on the statute-book at home, their effect must remain absolutely null, so far as this particular article is concerned. It is beyond human wit and power to secure to the cotton-grower, or to the grower of wheat or maize in the United States, the tenth part of a cent per bale or per bushel beyond what the price in the markets of export will allow to him. If, under these circumstances, he is required to pay to the iron-master of Pennsylvania, or to the manufacturer at Lowell, an extra price on his implements or on his clothing, for which he can receive no compensation whatever, such extra price is at first sight much like robbery perpetrated by law.

If such be the ugly physiognomy presented, at the present stage of our inquiry, by this ancient and hoary-headed wizard in relation to the claim for equal dealing between class and class, the presumptive case is not a whit better in regard to the aggregate wealth of the nation. Wealth is accumulation; and the aggregate of that accumulation depends upon the net surplus left by the prices of industrial products after defraying out of them the costs of production. To make this surplus large is to raise national wealth to its maximum. It is largest when we produce what we can produce cheapest. It is diminished, and the nation is so far impoverished, whenever and wherever and to whatever extent, under the cover of protective laws, men are induced to produce articles leaving a smaller surplus instead of articles leaving a larger one. But such is the essence of protection. In England (speaking roughly) it made us produce more wheat at high prices instead of more tissues at low prices. In America it makes you produce more cloth and more iron at high prices instead of more cereals and more cotton at low prices. And your contention is that by making production thus costly you make wages high. To this question let us pass onward; yet not without leaving behind us certain results which I think you will find it hard to attack, unless it be in flank and rear. Such as these: First, that extra price imposed on class A for the benefit of class B, without compensation, is robbery, and robbery not rendered (in the abstract) more respectable because the state is the culprit. Secondly, that protection means dear production, and dear production means, *pro tanto*, national impoverishment.

But the view of the genuine protectionist is the direct opposite of all this. I understand his contention to be that protection is (as I should say freedom is) a mine of wealth; that a greater aggregate profit results from what you would call keeping labor and capital at home than from letting them seek employment wherever in the whole world they can find it most economically. But if this really is so, if there be this inborn fertility in the principle itself, why are the several States of the Union precluded from applying it within their own respective borders? If the aggregate would be made richer by this internal application of protection to the parts, why is it not so applied? On the other hand, if the country as a whole would by this device be made not richer, but poorer, through the interference with the natural laws of production, then how is it that by similar inter-

ference the aggregate of the States, the great commonwealth of America, can be made, in its general balance-sheet, not poorer, but richer?

What is the value of this argument about keeping capital at home, by means of protection, which, but for protection, would find its way abroad? The contention seems to be this: capital which would be most profitably employed abroad ought by legal inducement to be inveigled into remaining here, in order that it may be less profitably employed at home. Our object ought to be, not to pursue those industries in which the return is the largest when compared with the outlay, but to detain in this country the largest quantity of capital that we can. Now, here I really must pursue the argument into its hiding-places by testing it in extremes. If the proper object for the legislator is to keep and employ in his country the greatest possible amount of capital, then the British Parliament (*exempli gratia*) ought to protect not only wheat but pineapples. A pineapple is now sold in London for 8*s.* 6*d.*, which before we imported that majestic fruit from the tropics, would have sold for £2. Why not protect the grower of pineapples at £2 by a duty of 400 per cent.? Do not tell me that this is ridiculous. It is ridiculous upon my principles; but upon your principles it is allowable, it is wise, it is obligatory—as wise, shall I say? as it is to protect cotton fabrics by a duty of 50 per cent. No; not as wise only, but even more wise, and therefore even more obligatory. Because according to this argument we ought to aim at the production within our own limits of those commodities which require the largest expenditure of capital and labor to rear them, in proportion to the quantity produced; and no commodity could more amply fulfil this condition.

If protection be, as its champions (or victims) hold, in itself an economical good, then it holds in the sphere of production the same place as belongs to truth in the sphere of philosophy, or to virtue in the sphere of morals. In this case, you cannot have too much of it; so that, while mere protection is economical good in embryo, such good finds its full development only in the prohibition of foreign trade. I do not think the argument would be unfair. It really is the logical corollary of all your utterances on the high wages which (as you believe) protection gives in America, and on the low wages which (as you believe) our free trade, now impartially applied all round, inflicts upon England. But I refrain from pressing the point, because I do not wish to be responsible for urging an argument which tends to drive the sincere protectionist deeper and deeper into, not the mud, but (what we should call) the mire.

But now I suppose the answer might be that the case which I have put is an extreme case; and that arguments are not well judged by their extremes. In some matters, for instance in moral matters, where virtue often resides in a mean, this may be so. But the laws of economy, which we are now handling, approach much more to the laws of arithmetic; and if your reasoning is that we ought to prefer, among the fields for the investment of capital, what is domestic to what is profitable, it is at least for the protectionist to show—and he never has shown—why it is worth a nation's while on this account to lose 5*s.* in the pound, but not to lose (say) 10*s.* or 15*s.*

I will, however, instead of relying on an unanswered challenge, push the war into the enemy's country. I shall boldly contend that the whole of this doctrine—that capital should be tempted into an area of dear production for the sake or under the notion of keeping it at home—is a delusion from top to bottom. It says to the capitalist, Invest (say) $1,000,000 in mills or factories to produce yarn and cloth which we could obtain more cheaply from abroad—that is, be it remembered, which could be produced abroad and sent here at a smaller cost of production, or, in other words, with less waste; for all expenditure in production beyond the measure of necessity—call it what we may—is simple waste. To induce him to do this, you promise that he shall receive an artificial instead of a natural price; and, in order that the foreigner may not drive him from the market, this artificial price shall be saddled, through the operation of an import duty, upon the competing foreign commodity; not in order to meet the wants of the

state, which is the sole justifying purpose of an import duty, but in order to cover the loss on wasteful domestic production, and to make it yield a profit. And all this in order, as is said, that the capitalist may be induced to keep his capital at home. But, in America, besides the jealously palisaded field of dear production, there is a vast open expanse of cheap production, namely, in the whole mass (to speak roughly) of the agricultural products of the country, not to mention such gifts of the earth as its mineral oils. In raising these, the American capitalist will find the demand of the world unexhausted, however he may increase the supply. Why, then, is he to carry his capital abroad when there is profitable employment for it at home? If protection is necessary to keep American capital at home, why is not the vast capital now sustaining your domestic agriculture, and raising commodities for sale at free-trade prices, exported to other countries? Or, conversely, since vast capitals find an unlimited field for employment in cheap domestic production without protection, it is demonstrated that protection is not required in order to keep your capital at home.

No adversary will, I think, venture upon answering this by saying that the profits are larger in protected than in unprotected industries. First, because the best opinions seem to testify that in your protected trades profits are hard pressed by wages—a state of things very likely to occur, because protection, resting upon artificial stimulants, tends to disturb and banish all natural adjustment. But, secondly, there can hardly be any votary of protection sufficiently quixotic to contend that waste ought to be encouraged in economical processes, and the entire community taxed without fiscal necessity, in order to secure to a particular order of capitalists profits higher than those reaped by another order—the public claim (such you hold it) of both resting upon exactly the same basis—namely, this, that they keep their capitals at home.

There is yet another point which I cannot pass without notice. I have not admitted that protection keeps at home any capital which would otherwise go abroad. But I now, for the moment, accept and reason upon the assumption that this is effected. And I ask—indeed, by the force of argument I may almost require—you to make an admission to me which is of the most serious character—namely, this, that there is a great deal of capital undoubtedly kept at home by protection, not for the purpose of dear production, which is partial waste, but for another kind of waste, which is sheer and absolute and totally uncompensated. This is the waste incurred in the great work of distributing commodities. If the price of iron or of cotton cloth is increased 50 per cent. by protection, then the capital required by every wholesale and every retail distributer must be increased in the same proportion. The distributer is not, and cannot be, in his auxiliary and essentially domestic work, protected by an import duty, any more than can the scavenger or the chimney-sweep. The import duty adds to the price he pays, and, consequently, to the circulating capital which he requires in order to carry on his traffic; but it adds nothing to the rate of profit which he receives, and nothing whatever to the employment which he gives. This forced increment of capital sets in motion no labor, and is compelled to work in the uncovered field of open trade. It has not the *prima facie* apology (such as that apology may be) which the iron-maker or the mill-owner may make, that he is employing American labor which would not otherwise be employed. If the waste under a protective duty of 50 per cent. be a waste of 50 per cent., the waste of the extra capital required in distribution is a waste of 100 per cent. on the cost of the operation; for it accomplishes absolutely nothing on behalf of the community which would not be accomplished equally if the commodity were 50 per cent. less in price; just as the postman distributing letters at 1*s.* performs no better or other service than the postman distributing letters at 1*d.* But of distributers the name is legion; they constitute the vast army of the wholesale and retail tradesmen of a country, with all the wants appertaining to them. As consumers, they are taxed on all protected commodities; as the allies of producers in the business of distributing,

they are forced to do with more capital what could be done as well with less.

Admitting that we see in the United States a coexistence of high wages with protection, but denying the relation of cause and effect between them, I may be asked whether I am prepared to broaden that denial into a universal proposition, and contend that in no case can wages be raised by a system of protection.

My answer is this: A country cannot possibly raise its aggregate wage fund by protection, but must inevitably reduce it. It is a contrivance for producing dear and for selling dear, under cover of a wall or fence which shuts out the cheaper foreign article, or handicaps it on admission by the imposition of a heavy fine. Yet I may for the moment allow it to be possible that, in some particular trade or trades, wages may be raised (at the expense of the community) in consequence of protection. There was a time when America built ships for Great Britain—namely, before the American Revolution. She now imposes heavy duties to prevent our building ships for her. Even my own recollection goes back to the period, between sixty and seventy years ago, when by far the most, and also the best part, of the trade between us was carried in American bottoms. Mr. McKay refers in his letter to a period before the war when she could compete with British labor, but when, as he informs us, your shipwright was paid 6*s.* a day, whereas now he has 14*s.*; which means that, as the profits of capital are not supposed to have declined, the community pays for ships more than twice as much as it used to pay, and your ship-builders do a small trade with a large capital, instead of doing (as before) a large trade with a (relatively) small capital.

I will not now stop to dilate on my admiration for the resources of a community which can bear to indulge in these impoverishing processes; nor even to ask whether the shipwright in the small trade has the same constancy of wage as he had in the large one, or whether his large receipt is countervailed by his large outlay on the necessaries and comforts of life. But I will look simply to the question whether protection in this case raises wages. I do not undertake to say it is, in a limited way, impossible. If it be true, the steps in the process are, I conceive, as follows: America absolutely requires for her own use a certain number and tonnage of vessels. Congress lays such duties upon foreign ships and materials that they shall not be obtained from abroad at less than double the price at which they are sold in the open market. Therefore the American shipbuilder can force his countrymen to pay him any sum, not exceeding two prices, for his commodity. The remaining point is the division of the amount between the capitalist and the workman. That is governed by the general state of the labor market in the country. If the labor market, although open to the world, is insufficiently supplied, then the wage-earner may possibly, in a given case, come in for a share of the monopoly price of ships. If the handwork be one requiring a long apprenticeship (so to call it), and thereby impeding the access of domestic competitors, this will augment his share. Then why not the like, some one will ask, in all cases? Because the community in the given case pays the price of the monopoly—that is to say, throws the price to waste, and because, while a trader in a multitude of commodities may lose upon one of them, and yet may have a good balance-sheet upon the whole, he must not and cannot lose upon them all without ceasing to be a trader; and a nation, with respect to its aggregate of production, is as a single trader.

Without, then, absolutely denying it to be possible that in some isolated and exceptional cases there may be a relation between protection (and all protection, so far as it goes, is monopoly) and high wages, I contend that to refer generally the high rate of wages in the United States to this cause would be nothing less than preposterous. And on this part of the case I desire to propound what appears to me to be in the nature of a dilemma, with some curiosity to know how the champions of protection would be disposed to meet it. Let me assume, for the purpose of trying the issue, that one-half of the salable products of the United States are agricultural and one-half manufactured, and that the manufactured moiety are covered by protection, while

the agricultural half, since they are articles of large export, bear only such a price as is assigned to them by foreign competition in the markets where they are sold. I take this rough estimate for the sake of simplicity, and in the same view I overlook the fact that the sugar which you grow is still covered, as it used to be covered, by an operative protection. One-half, then, of American labor enjoys protective wages; the other half of the products of the United States is furnished by mere "free-trade toilers." Now, I want to ask whether the wages of the agricultural half are raised by the existence of protective laws which cover the artisan half. This you cannot possibly affirm, because it is an elementary fact that (given the quantity of labor in the market) they are governed by the prices of the commodities they produce, and that those prices are free-trade prices. You have "free-trade toilers" all over your country, and by their side you have protected artisans. I ask, then, next, this question: Is the remuneration of the "free-trade toilers," all things taken into account, equivalent to that of the protected artisans? If it is not, why do not the agricultural men pass over into the provinces of demand for manufacturing and mining labor, and, by augmenting the supply, reduce and equalize the rate? Which is like asking, How comes it that a man is content with one loaf when two are offered him? The answer would be, He is not content; whenever he can, he takes the two and leaves the one. It follows that in this case there exists no excess of wage for him to appropriate. The loaf, meaning by the loaf not a mere money rate, but that money rate together with all its incidents of all kinds, is equal as between the protected and the unprotected laborer. The proportions of the two kinds of labor are governed in the long run (and perhaps in America more certainly and rapidly than anywhere else) by the advantages attaching to each respectively. In other words, the free-trade wages are as good as the protected wages; and (apart from small and exceptional cases) the idea that protection raises the rate of wages on any large scale or in any open field is an illusion.

But I proceed to consider the vast exceptional advantages which as a country the United States enjoy; which enable them to bear the process of depletion that, through the system of protection, it is their pleasure to undergo, and which for them cause the question to be one not of absolute retrogression, but only of hampered and retarded progress.

I hold that dear production, even if compensated to the producer by high price, is a wasteful and exhausting process. I may still be asked for a detailed answer to the question, "How, then, is it that America, which, as you say, makes enormous waste by protection, nevertheless outstrips all other countries in the rapid accumulation of her wealth?" To which my general answer is that the case is like that of an individual who, with wasteful expenditure, has a vast fortune, such as to leave him a large excess of receipts. But for his waste that excess would be larger still.

I will, then, proceed to set forth some of the causes which, by giving exceptional energy and exceptional opportunity to the work of production in America, seem to allow (in homely phrase) of her making ducks and drakes of a large portion of what ought to be her accumulations, and yet, by virtue of the remainder of them, to astonish the world.

1. Let me observe, first, that America produces an enormous mass of cotton, cereals, meat, oils, and other commodities, which are sold in the unsheltered market of the world at such prices as it will yield. The producers are fined for the benefit of the protected interests, and receive nothing in return; but they obtain for their country, as well as for the world, the whole advantage of a vast natural trade—that is to say, a trade in which production is carried on at a minimum cost in capital and labor as compared with what the rest of the world can do.

2. America invites and obtains in a remarkable degree from all the world one of the great elements of production, without tax of any kind—namely, capital.

3. While securing to the capitalist producer a monopoly in the protected trades, she allows all the world to do its best, by a free immigration, to prevent or qualify any corresponding monopoly in the class of workmen.

4. She draws upon a bank of natural resources so vast that it easily bears those deductions of improvidence which simply prevent the results from being vaster still.

Let me now mention some at least among those elements of the unrivalled national strength of America which explain to us why she is not ruined by the huge waste of the protective system. And first of these I place the immense extent and vastness of her territory, which make her not so much a country as in herself a world, and not a very little world. She carries on the business of domestic exchanges on a scale such as mankind has never seen. Of all the staple products of human industry and care, how few are there which, in one or another of her countless regions, the soil of America would refuse to yield. No other country has the same diversity, the same free choice of industrial pursuit, the same option to lay hold not on the good merely, but on the best. Historically, all international trade has had its broadest basis in the interchange between tropical or southern commodities and those of the temperate or northern zone. And even this kind of exchange America possesses on a considerable scale within her own ample borders.

Apart from this wide variety, I suppose there is no other country of the whole earth in which, if we combine together the surface and that which is below the surface, Nature has been so bountiful to man. The mineral resources of our own Britannic Isle have, without question, principally contributed to its commercial pre-eminence. But when we match them with those of America, it is Lilliput against Brobdingnag. I believe that your coal-field, for example, is to ours nearly in the proportion of thirty-six to one. Now, this vast aggregate superiority of purely natural wealth is simply equivalent to the gift, say, of a queen in a game of chess, or to a start allowed in a race by one boy to another; with this difference: that America could hold her own against all comers without the queen, and that, like her little Lord Fauntleroy, she can, if she likes, run the race, and perhaps win it, upon equal terms. By protection she makes a bad move, which helps us to make fight, and ties a heavy clog upon her feet, so that the most timid among us need not now to greatly dread her competition in the international trade of the world.

Again, the international position of America may, in a certain light, be illustrated by comparing together the economical conditions under which coal has been produced in the different districts of this island. The royalty upon coal represents that surplus over and above estimated trading profit from a mine which the lessee can afford to pay the landlord. In England, generally, royalties have varied from about 6*d.* a ton to 9*d.* in a few cases; scarcely ever higher. But in Staffordshire, owing to the existence of a remarkable coal-measure, called the 10-yard coal, and to the presence of ironstone abundantly interstratified with the coal, the royalty has often amounted to no less than 3*s.* This excess has a real analogy to the surplus bounty of Mother Earth in America. And when I see her abating somewhat of her vast advantages through the trick of protection, I am reminded of the curious fact that (as it happens) this unusual abundance of the mineral made the getting of it in Staffordshire singularly wasteful, and that fractions, and no small fractions, of the 10-yard coal are now irrecoverably buried in the earth, like the tribute which America has—and has, as it seems, contentedly—been paying to her protected interests.

In most of the elements of cheapness, America wholly surpasses us; as, for example, in the natural, indefeasible advantages she enjoys through the vastness not only of the soils which produce, but of the markets which consume, her productions. I have lately seen a penny periodical, published by Messrs. Harper, of New York, which far surpasses all that the enterprise and skill of our publishers have been able to produce. But all these *plus* quantities she works hard to convert into *minuses* through the devouring agency of protection.

There are two other particulars which I have to notice before quitting this portion of the subject. Each of them involves a compliment—the one to us, the other to yourselves. As there is an invidious element in all self-praise, I will get rid first of what touches us. It is

this: Trade is, in one respect at least, like mercy. It cannot be carried on without conferring a double benefit. Again, trade cannot be increased without increasing this benefit, and increasing it (in the long run) on both sides alike. Freedom has enormously extended our trade with the countries of the world, and, above all others, with the United States. It follows that they have derived immense benefit, that their waste has been greatly repaired, their accumulations largely augmented, through British legislation. We have not on this ground any merit or any claims whatever. We legislated for our own advantage, and are satisfied with the benefit we have received. But it is a fact, and a fact of no small dimensions, which, in estimating the material development of America, cannot be lost sight of.

My second point touches the circumstances of the national infancy and growth. It would be alike futile and unjust, in pointing out the singular advantages over the outer world which nature has given to America, not to take notice of those advantages which her people have earned or created for themselves. In no country, I suppose, has there been so careful a cultivation of the inventive faculty. And if America has surpassed in industrial discoveries the race from which her people sprang, we do not grudge her the honor or the gain. Americans are economists in inventions and do not let them slip. For example, the reaping-machine of modern times, I believe, was invented in Forfarshire, but did not pass into any general use. Still-born there, it disappeared; but it was appreciated and established in America, and then came back among us as an importation from thence, and was at last appreciated and established here. The scarcity of labor has, in truth, supplied the great republic with an essential element of severe and salutary discipline.

The youth of America was, especially in New England, a youth, not of luxury, but of difficulty. Nature dealt somewhat sternly with your ancestors; and to their great advantage. They were reared in a mould of masculine character, and were made fit to encounter, and turn to account, all vicissitudes. As the country opened, they were confronted everywhere with one great and crying want, the scarcity of labor. So they were put upon the application of their mental powers to labor-saving contrivances, and this want grew as fast as, or faster than, it was supplied. Thus it has come about that a race endued with consummate ability for labor, has also become the richest of all races in instruments for dispensing with labor. The provision of such instruments has become with you a standing tradition, and this to such a degree that you have taken your place as (probably) the most inventive nation in the world. It is thus obvious enough that a remarkable faculty and habit of invention, which goes direct to cheapness, helps to fill up that gap in your productive results which is created by the wastefulness of protection. The leakage in the national cistern is more than compensated by the efficiency of the pumps that supply it.

America makes no scruple, then, to cheapen everything in which labor is concerned, and she gives the capitalist the command of all inventions on the best terms she can contrive. Why? Only because this is the road to national wealth. Therefore, she has no mercy upon labor, but displaces it right and left. Yet, when we come to the case where capital is most in question, she enables her shipbuilders, her iron-masters, and her millowners to charge double or semi-double prices; which, if her practice as to labor-saving be right, must be the road to national poverty. *E converso*, if she be right in shutting out foreign ships and goods to raise the receipts of the American capitalist, why does she not tax the reaping-machine and the American "devil" to raise the receipts of the American laborer? Not that I recommend such consistency. I rejoice in the anomalies and contradictions by virtue of which the applications of science everywhere abound through the States for the benefit of their populations, and, without doubt, though more circuitously, of ours also, and of the world at large.

I have still to notice one remaining point. It is this: I do not doubt that production is much cheapened in America by the absence of all kinds of class legislation except that which is termed

protection; an instance alike vicious and gigantic, but still an instance only. In our British legislation, the interest of the individual or the class still rather largely prevails against that of the public. In America, as I understand the matter, the public obtains full and equal justice. I take for example the case of the railroads; that vast creation, one of almost universal good to mankind, now approaching to one-tenth or one-twelfth of our entire national possessions. It is believed that in unnecessary parliamentary expenditure, and in abnormal prices paid for land, the railways of this country were taxed to between £50,000,000 and £100,000,000 sterling beyond the natural cost of their creation. Thus does the spirit of protection, only shifting its form, still go ravening about among us. Nothing is so common here as to receive compensation; and we get it not only for injuries, but for benefits. But while the great nation of the Union rightly rejoices in her freedom from our superstitions, why should she desire, create, and worship new superstitions of her own?

I am sorry to say that, although I have closed the economical argument, I have not yet done with the counts of my indictment against protection. I have, indeed, had to ask myself whether I should be within my right in saying hard things, outside the domain of political economy, about a system which has commended itself to the great American state and people, although those hard things are, in part at least, strictly consequent upon what has been said before. Indeed, the moral is so closely allied to the economical argument as to be intertwined with it rather than consequent upon it. Further, I believe the people of the United States to be a people who, like that race from which they are sprung, love plain speaking; and do not believe that to suppress opinions deliberately and conscientiously held would be the way to win your respect.

I urge, then, that all protection is morally as well as economically bad. This is a very different thing from saying that all protectionists are bad. Many of them, without doubt, are good, nay, excellent, as were in this country many of the supporters of the corn law. It is of the tendencies of a system that I speak, which operate variously, upon most men unconsciously, upon some men not at all; and surely that system cannot be good which makes an individual, or a set of individuals, live on the resources of the community and causes him relatively to diminish that store, which duty to his fellow-citizens and to their equal rights should teach him by his contributions to augment. The habit of mind thus engendered is not such as altogether befits a free country or harmonizes with an independent character. And the more the system of protection is discussed and contested, the more those whom it favors are driven to struggle for its maintenance, the farther they must insensibly deviate from the law of equal rights, and, perhaps, even from the tone of genuine personal independence.

In speaking thus, we speak greatly from our own experience. I have personally lived through the varied phases of that experience, since we began that battle between monopoly and freedom which cost us about a quarter of a century of the nation's life. I have seen and known, and had the opportunity of comparing, the temper and frame of mind engendered first by our protectionism, which we now look back upon as servitude, and then by the commercial freedom and equality which we have enjoyed for the last thirty or forty years. The one tended to harden into positive selfishness; the other has done much to foster a more liberal tone of mind.

The economical question which I have been endeavoring to discuss is a very large one. Nevertheless, it dwindles, in my view, when it is compared with the paramount question of the American future viewed at large. There opens before the thinking mind when this supreme question is propounded a vista so transcending all ordinary limitation as requires an almost preterhuman force and expansion of the mental eye in order to embrace it. Some things, and some weighty things, are clear so far as the future admits of clearness. There is a vision of territory, population, power, passing beyond all experience. The exhibition to mankind, for the first time in history, of free institu-

tions on a gigantic scale, is momentous, and I have enough faith in freedom, enough distrust of all that is alien from freedom, to believe that it will work powerfully for good. But together with and behind these vast developments there will come a corresponding opportunity of social and moral influence to be exercised over the rest of the world. And the question of questions for us, as trustees for our posterity, is, What will be the nature of this influence? Will it make us, the children of the senior races, who will have to come under its action, better or worse? Not what manner of producer, but what manner of man, is the American of the future to be?

I am, I trust, a lover of human advancement; but I know of no true progress except upon the old lines. Our race has not lived for nothing. Their pilgrimage through this deeply shadowed valley of life and death has not been all in vain. They have made accumulations on our behalf. I resent, and to the best of my power I would resist, every attempt to deprive us either in whole or in part of the benefit of those accumulations. The American love of freedom will, beyond all doubt, be to some extent qualified, perhaps in some cases impaired, by the subtle influence of gold, aggregated by many hands in vaster masses than have yet been known.

> "Aurum per medios ire satellites,
> Et perrumpere amat saxa, potentius
> Ictu fulmineo."

But, to rise higher still, how will the majestic figure, about to become the largest and most powerful on the stage of the world's history, make use of his power? Will it be instinct with moral life in proportion to its material strength? Will he uphold and propagate the Christian tradition with that surpassing energy which marks him in all the ordinary pursuits of life? Will he maintain with a high hand an unfaltering reverence for that law of nature which is anterior to the Gospel, and supplies the standard to which it appeals, the very foundation on which it is built up? Will he fully know, and fully act upon the knowledge, that both reverence and strictness are essential conditions of all high and desirable well-being? And will he be a leader and teacher to us of the Old World in rejecting and denouncing all the miserable degrading sophistries by which the arch-enemy, ever devising more and more subtle schemes against us, seeks at one stroke perhaps to lower us beneath the brutes, assuredly to cut us off from the hope and from the source of the final good? One thing is certain: his temptations will multiply with his power; his responsibilities with his opportunities. Will the seed be sown among the thorns? Will worldliness overrun the ground and blight its flowers and its fruit? On the answers to these questions, and to such as these, it will depend whether this new revelation of power upon the earth is also to be a revelation of virtue; whether it shall prove a blessing or a curse. May Heaven avert every darker omen, and grant that the latest and largest growth of the great Christian civilization shall also be the brightest and the best! See MORRILL, JUSTIN SMITH; PROTECTION.

Free-traders, COMPANY OF. When the province of Pennsylvania was granted to William Penn, a number of settlements already existed there. A royal proclamation confirming the grant to Penn, and another from Penn himself, were sent to these settlements by the hand of William Markham in the summer of 1681. In his proclamation Penn assured the settlers that they should live free under laws of their own making. Meanwhile adventurers calling themselves the Company of Free-traders made a contract with the proprietor for the purchase of lands at the rate of about $10 the 100 acres, subject to a perpetual quit-rent of 1*s.* for every 100-acre grant; the purchasers also to have lots in a city to be laid out. Three vessels filled with these emigrants soon sailed for the Delaware, with three commissioners, who bore a plan of the city, and a friendly letter from Penn to the Indians, whom he addressed as brethren.

Freewill Baptists, a division of Baptists founded by Benjamin Randall in New Durham, N. H., in 1780. They gradually extended beyond New England into the West, but made no advance in the South, owing to their strong anti-slavery opinions. The doctrine and practice of the Freewill Baptists are embodied in a *Treatise* written in 1832. The chapters,

twenty-one in all, declare that man can be rescued from his fallen state and made a child of God by redemption and regeneration, which have been freely provided. The "call of the Gospel is co-extensive with the atonement, to all men," so that salvation is "equally possible to all." The "truly regenerate" are "through infirmity and manifold temptations, in danger of falling," and "ought therefore to watch and pray lest they make shipwreck of faith." They practise immersion, and hold that every Christian, whatever his belief regarding the mode of baptism, is eligible to partake of the Lord's Supper. In 1910 there were reported 600 ministers, 556 churches, and 40,280 members.

Frelinghuysen, FREDERICK, lawyer; born in Somerset county, N. J., April 13, 1753; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1770, and became an eminent lawyer. He was a member of the Continental Congress much of the time during the Revolutionary War, and served as a captain in the army. Afterwards he filled various State and county offices, and in 1790 was appointed by Washington to lead an expedition against the western Indians, with the rank of major-general. In 1793 he was chosen United States Senator, and served three years. He died April 13, 1804.

Frelinghuysen, FREDERICK THEODORE, statesman; born in Millstone, N. J., Aug. 4, 1817; grandson of the preceding; graduated at Rutgers College in 1836; became an eminent lawyer, and was attorney-general of New Jersey, 1861–66. He was chosen United States Senator in 1868, and was re-elected for a full term in 1871. He was a prominent member of the Republican party. In July, 1870, President Grant appointed him minister to England, but he declined the position. On Dec. 12, 1881, he entered the cabinet of President Arthur as Secretary of State, on the resignation of Secretary Blaine, and served to the end of that administration, March 4, 1885. He died in Newark, N. J., May 20, 1885.

THEODORE FRELINGHUYSEN.

Frelinghuysen, THEODORE, lawyer; born in Millstone, N. J., March 28, 1787; son of Gen. Frederick Frelinghuysen; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1804, and was admitted to the bar in 1808. In the War of 1812–15 he commanded a company of volunteers, and in 1817 became attorney-general of New Jersey, which post he held until 1829, when he was elected United States Senator. In 1838 he was chosen chancellor of the University of New York, and made his residence in that city; and

in 1844 he was nominated for Vice-President of the United States, with Henry Clay for President. Mr. Frelinghuysen left the University of New York in 1850 to became president of RUTGERS COLLEGE (*q. v.*), in his native State, which place he held until his death in New Brunswick, N. J., April 12, 1862.

Fremin, JACQUES. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

Frémont, JESSIE BENTON, author; born in Virginia in 1824; was the daughter of Senator Thomas H. Benton, of Missouri; married John C. Frémont in 1841. She published *The Story of the Guard; Memoir of Thomas H. Benton*, etc. She died in Los Angeles, Cal., Dec. 27, 1902.

FRÉMONT, JOHN CHARLES

Frémont, JOHN CHARLES, explorer; born in Savannah, Ga., Jan. 21, 1813; graduated at Charleston College in 1830. His father was a Frenchman, and his mother a Virginian. He was instructor in mathematics in the United States navy from 1833 to 1835. Engaged in surveying the Cherokee country in the winter of 1837–38, he began his famous explorations, first in the country between the Missouri River and the British possessions. He had been appointed second lieutenant of topographical engineers in July. In 1841 he married a daughter of Senator Thomas H. Benton, and in May, 1842, he began, under the authority of the government, the exploration of an overland route to the Pacific Ocean. He ascended the highest peak of the Wind River Mountains, which was afterwards named Frémont's Peak. He explored the Great Salt Lake region in 1843, and penetrated to the Pacific near the mouth of the Columbia River. In 1845 he explored the Sierra Nevada in California, and in 1846 became involved in hostilities with the Mexicans on the Pacific coast. He assisted in the conquest of California; was appointed its military governor; and, after its admission as a State, became one of its first United States Senators. He continued his explorations after the war. For his scientific researches, Frémont received, in 1850, a gold medal from the King of Prussia, and another from the Royal Geographical Society of London. He had already received from his countrymen the significant title of "The Pathfinder." At his own expense he made a fifth exploration, in 1853, and found a new route to the Pacific. In 1856, the newly formed Republican party nominated him for the Presidency of the United States, and he received 114 electoral votes against 174 given for Buchanan. Returning from Europe in May, 1861, and being appointed a major-general in the United States army, he was assigned to command the Western Department; but,

JOHN CHARLES FRÉMONT.

through the intrigues of ambitious politicians, was removed from the command in the course of six months, while successfully prosecuting a campaign he had planned. He was in command of another department, but resigned in 1862, declining to serve under an officer inferior to him in rank. Radical Republicans nominated him for the Presidency in 1864, after which he took leave of political life; but he became active in promoting the construction of a transcontinental railway. He died in New York, July 13, 1890.

In the spring of 1845 Captain Frémont was sent by his government to explore the great basin and the maritime region of Oregon and California. He crossed the

Sierra Nevada, in the dead of winter, from Great Salt Lake into California, with between sixty and seventy men, to obtain supplies. Leaving them in the valley of the San Joaquin, he went to Monterey, then the capital of the province of California, to obtain permission from the Mexican authorities to continue his explorations. It was given, but was almost immediately withdrawn, and he was peremptorily ordered to leave the country without delay. He refused, when General de Castro, the Mexican governor, mustered the forces of the province to expel him. At length he was permitted to go on with his explorations without hinderance. On May 9, 1846, he received despatches from his government, directing him to watch the movements of the Mexicans in California, who seemed disposed to hand the province over to the British government. It was also rumored that General de Castro intended to destroy all the American settlements on the Sacramento River. Frémont hurried back to California, and found De Castro on the march against the settlements. The settlers flew to arms, and joined Frémont's camp, and, under his leadership, these settlements were not only saved, but the Mexican authorities were driven out of California. Frémont and his followers met General de Castro and his forces, strong in numbers, when Frémont retired about 30 miles, to a mountain position, where he called around him the American settlers in that region. With these he captured a Mexican post at Sonoma Pass (June 15, 1846), with nine cannon and 250 muskets. De Castro was routed, and on July 5 the Americans in California declared themselves independent, and elected Frémont governor of the province. He then proceeded to join the American naval forces at Monterey, under Commodore Stockton, who had lately arrived, with authority from Washington to conquer California. Frémont appeared there with 160 mounted riflemen. On Aug. 17, 1846, Stockton and Frémont took possession of the city of Los Angeles; and at that place General Kearny, who had just taken possession of New Mexico, joined Stockton and Frémont, Dec. 27, 1846. Kearny would not sanction the election of Frémont as governor of California, and on Feb. 8, 1847, assuming that office himself, he declared the annexation of California to the United States. Frémont refused to obey General Kearny, his superior officer, who sent him to Washington under arrest, where he was tried by a court-martial, which sentenced him to be dismissed from the service, but recommended him to the clemency of the President. The penalty was remitted, and in October, 1848, Frémont entered upon his fourth exploration among the far western mountains. See KEARNY, STEPHEN WATTS; STOCKTON, ROBERT FIELD.

Frémont was in Europe when the Civil War broke out, and, leaving on receiving notice of his appointment to the army, he returned home, bringing with him arms for the government. He arrived in Boston on June 27, and July 6 he was appointed to the command of the Western Department, just created. He arrived at St. Louis July 26, where he made his headquarters. He found disorder everywhere. The terms of enlistment of home guards, or three-months' men, were expiring, and they were unwilling to re-enlist. He had very little money or arms at his disposal, and was unable to send aid to General Lyon, in the southwestern portion of the State, battling with the Confederates. He resolved to assume grave responsibilities. He applied to the United States Treasurer at St. Louis for a portion of $300,000 in his hands, but was refused. He was about to seize $100,000 of it when the officer yielded; and, with the money, Frémont secured the re-enlistment of many of the home guards. He strongly fortified St. Louis, and prepared to place the important post at Cairo in a position of absolute security. With nearly 4,000 troops on steamers, he proceeded to Cairo with such a display that the impression was general that he had 12,000. Although large bodies of Confederate troops in Kentucky and Missouri were gathered for the purpose of seizing Cairo and Bird's Point, Frémont was not molested in his mission, and Prentiss, at the former place, was amply strengthened. Pillow and Thompson and Hardee, who had advanced in that direction, fell back, and became very discreet. Frémont returned to St. Louis on Aug. 4, having accomplished his wishes

and spread alarm among the Confederates. Polk, at Memphis, ordered Pillow to evacuate New Madrid, with his men and heavy guns, and hasten to Randolph and Fort Pillow, on the Tennessee shore. When news of the battle at Wilson's Creek, and the death of Lyon, reached St. Louis, the Confederates were jubilant. Frémont immediately proclaimed martial law, and appointed a provost-marshal. Some of the most active Confederates were arrested, and the publication of newspapers charged with disloyalty was suspended. But the condition of public affairs in Missouri was becoming more and more alarming. The provisional government was almost powerless. Frémont took all authority into his own hands. Confederates were arrested and imprisoned, and disloyalty of every kind felt the force of his power. He proclaimed that the property, real and personal, of all persons in Missouri who should be proven to have taken an active part with the enemies of the government in the field should be confiscated to the public use, and their slaves, if they had any, should thereafter be free men (see EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATIONS). As he acted promptly in accordance with his proclamation, great consternation began to prevail. At that moment his hand was stayed. Because of his avowed determination to confiscate the property and free the slaves of the disloyalists, a storm of indignation suddenly arose in the border slave States, which alarmed the national government, and the President, wishing to placate the rebellious spirit of those States, requested Frémont to modify his proclamation on these points. He declined to do so, when the President, at Frémont's request, issued an order for such a modification. Frémont could not, for it would imply that he thought the measure wrong, which he did not.

Frémont was censured for his failure to reinforce Colonel Mulligan at Lexington. The public knew very little of his embarrassments at that time. Pressing demands came for reinforcements from General Grant at Paducah. At various points in his department were heard cries for help, and a peremptory order came from General Scott for him to forward 5,000 troops immediately to Washington, D. C., notwithstanding McClellan numbered 75,000 within easy call of the capital. Frémont's force, never exceeding 56,000, was scattered over his department. Chafing under unjust complaints, he proceeded to put into execution his plan of ridding the Mississippi Valley of Confederates. His plan contemplated the capture or dispersion of troops under General Price in Missouri, and the seizure of Little Rock, Ark. By so doing, he expected to turn the position of Pillow and others in the vicinity of New Madrid, cut off the supplies from the southwest, and compel them to retreat, at which time a flotilla of gunboats, then building near St. Louis, might descend the Mississippi, and assist in military operations against the batteries at Memphis. In the event of this movement being successful, he proposed to push on towards the Gulf of Mexico with his army, and take possession of New Orleans. More than 20,000 soldiers were set in motion (Sept. 27, 1861) southward (5,000 of them cavalry), under the respective commands of Generals Hunter, Pope, Sigel, McKinstry, and Asboth, accompanied by eighty-six heavy guns. These were moving southward early in October; and on the 11th, when his army was 30,000 strong, he wrote to the government: "My plan is, New Orleans straight; I would precipitate the war forward, and end it soon victoriously." He was marching with confidence of success, and his troops were winning little victories here and there, when, through the influence of men jealous of him and his political enemies, Frémont's career was suddenly checked. False accusers, public and private, caused General Scott to send an order for him to turn over his command to General Hunter, then some distance in the rear. Hunter arrived just as the troops were about to attack Price. He took the command, and countermanded Frémont's orders for battle; and nine days afterwards Gen. H. W. Halleck was placed in command of the Department of Missouri. The disappointed and disheartened army were turned back, and marched to St. Louis in sullen sadness. Soon afterwards an elegant sword was presented to Frémont, inscribed, "To the Pathfinder, by the Men of the West."

Ascent of Frémont's Peak.—In the *Journal* of his first expedition (1842), Frémont gives a modest yet thrilling account of the ascent of the highest peak of the Rocky Mountains and of the planting of "Old Glory" on the extreme summit. The altitude of this peak is given by Prof. F. V. Hayden as 13,790 feet. The *Journal* reads as follows:

August 10.—The air at sunrise is clear and pure, and the morning extremely cold, but beautiful. A lofty snow-peak of the mountain is glittering in the first rays of the sun, which has not yet reached us. The long mountain wall to the east, rising 2,000 feet abruptly from the plain, behind which we see the peaks, is still dark, and cuts clear against the glowing sky. A fog, just risen from the river, lies along the base of the mountain. A little before sunrise, the thermometer was at 35°, and at sunrise 33°. Water froze last night, and fires are very comfortable. The scenery becomes hourly more interesting and grand, and the view here is truly magnificent; but, indeed, it needs something to repay the long prairie journey of 1,000 miles. The sun has just shot above the wall, and makes a magical change. The whole valley is glowing and bright, and all the mountain-peaks are gleaming like silver. Though these snow-mountains are not the Alps, they have their own character of grandeur and magnificence, and will doubtless find pens and pencils to do them justice. In the scene before us, we feel how much wood improves a view. The pines on the mountain seemed to give it much additional beauty. I was agreeably disappointed in the character of the streams on this side the ridge. Instead of the creeks, which description had led me to expect, I find bold, broad streams, with three or four feet of water, and a rapid current. The fork on which we are encamped is upward of 100 feet wide, timbered with groves or thickets of the low willow. We were now approaching the loftiest part of the Wind River chain; and I left the valley a few miles from our encampment, intending to penetrate the mountains, as far as possible, with the whole party. We were soon involved in very broken ground, among long ridges covered with fragments of granite. Winding our way up a long ravine, we came unexpectedly in view of a most beautiful lake, set like a gem in the mountains. The sheet of water lay transversely across the direction we had been pursuing; and, descending the steep, rocky ridge, where it was necessary to lead our horses, we followed its banks to the southern extremity. Here a view of the utmost magnificence and grandeur burst upon our eyes. With nothing between us and their feet to lessen the effect of the whole height, a grand bed of snow-capped mountains rose before us, pile upon pile, glowing in the bright light of an August day. Immediately below them lay the lake, between two ridges, covered with dark pines, which swept down from the main chain to the spot where we stood. Here, where the lake glittered in the open sunlight, its banks of yellow sand and the light foliage of aspen groves contrasted well with the gloomy pines. "Never before," said Mr. Preuss, "in this country or in Europe, have I seen such magnificent, grand rocks." I was so much pleased with the beauty of the place that I determined to make the main camp here, where our animals would find good pasturage, and explore the mountains with a small party of men. Proceeding a little further, we came suddenly upon the outlet of the lake, where it found its way through a narrow passage between low hills. Dark pines, which overhung the stream, and masses of rock, where the water foamed along, gave it much romantic beauty. Where we crossed, which was immediately at the outlet, it is two hundred and fifty feet wide, and so deep that with difficulty we were able to ford it. Its bed was an accumulation of rocks, boulders, and broad slabs, and large angular fragments, among which the animals fell repeatedly.

The current was very swift, and the water cold and of a crystal purity. In crossing this stream, I met with a great misfortune in having my barometer broken. It was the only one. A great part of the interest of the journey for me was in the exploration of these mountains, of which so much had been said that was doubtful and contradictory; and now their snowy peaks rose majestically before me, and the only means of giving them authentically to science, the object

ROCKY MOUNTAIN SCENERY.

of my anxious solicitude by night and day, was destroyed. We had brought this barometer in safety 1,000 miles, and broke it almost among the snow of the mountains. The loss was felt by the whole camp. All had seen my anxiety, and aided me in preserving it. The height of these mountains, considered by the hunters and traders the highest in the whole range, had been a theme of constant discussion among them; and all had looked forward with pleasure to the moment when the instrument, which they believed to be as true as the sun, should stand upon the summits and decide their disputes. Their grief was only inferior to my own.

This lake is about 3 miles long and of very irregular width and apparently great depth, and is the head-water of the third New Fork, a tributary to Green River, the Colorado of the West. On the map and in the narrative I have called it Mountain Lake. I encamped on the north side, about 350 yards from the outlet. This was the most western point at which I obtained astronomical observations, by which this place, called Bernier's encampment, is made in 110° 08′ 03″ W. long. from Greenwich, and lat

43° 49′ 49″. The mountain peaks, as laid down, were fixed by bearings from this and other astronomical points. We had no other compass than the small ones used in sketching the country; but from an azimuth, in which one of them was used, the variation of the compass is 18° E. The correction made in our field work by the astronomical observations indicates that this is a very correct observation.

As soon as the camp was formed, I set about endeavoring to repair my barometer. As I have already said, this was a standard cistern barometer, of Troughton's construction. The glass cistern had been broken about midway; but, as the instrument had been kept in a proper position, no air had found its way into the tube, the end of which had always remained covered. I had with me a number of phials of tolerably thick glass, some of which were of the same diameter as the cistern, and I spent the day in slowly working on these, endeavoring to cut them of the requisite length; but, as my instrument was a very rough file, I invariably broke them. A groove was cut in one of the trees, where the barometer was placed during the night, to be out of the way of any possible danger; and in the morning I commenced again. Among the powder-horns in the camp, I found one which was very transparent, so that its contents could be almost as plainly seen as through glass. This I boiled and stretched on a piece of wood to the requisite diameter, and scraped it very thin, in order to increase to the utmost its transparency. I then secured it firmly in its place on the instrument with strong glue made from a buffalo, and filled it with mercury properly heated. A piece of skin, which had covered one of the phials, furnished a good pocket, which was well secured with strong thread and glue; and then the brass cover was screwed into its place. The instrument was left some time to dry; and, when I reversed it, a few hours after, I had the satisfaction to find it in perfect order, its indications being about the same as on the other side of the lake before it had been broken. Our success in this little incident diffused pleasure throughout the camp; and we immediately set about our preparations for ascending the mountains.

As will be seen, on reference to a map, on this short mountain chain are the head-waters of four great rivers of the continent,—namely, the Colorado, Columbia, Missouri, and Platte Rivers. It had been my design, after having ascended the mountains, to continue our route on the western side of the range, and, crossing through a pass at the northwestern end of the chain, about 30 miles from our present camp, return along the eastern slope across the heads of the Yellowstone River, and join on the line to our station of August 7, immediately at the foot of the ridge. In this way, I should be enabled to include the whole chain and its numerous waters in my survey; but various considerations induced me, very reluctantly, to abandon this plan.

I was desirous to keep strictly within the scope of my instructions; and it would have required ten or fifteen additional days for the accomplishment of this object. Our animals had become very much worn out with the length of the journey; game was very scarce; and, though it does not appear in the course of the narrative (as I have avoided dwelling upon trifling incidents not connected with the objects of the expedition), the spirits of the men had been much exhausted by the hardships and privations to which they had been subjected. Our provisions had wellnigh all disappeared. Bread had been long out of the question; and of all our stock we had remaining two or three pounds of coffee and a small quantity of macaroni, which had been husbanded with great care for the mountain expedition we were about to undertake. Our daily meal consisted of dry buffalo meat cooked in tallow; and, as we had not dried this with Indian skill, part of it was spoiled, and what remained of good was as hard as wood, having much the taste and appearance of so many pieces of bark. Even of this, our stock was rapidly diminishing in a camp which was capable of consuming two buffaloes in every twenty-four hours. These animals had entirely disappeared, and it was not probable that we should fall in with them again until we returned to the Sweet Water.

Our arrangements for the ascent were rapidly completed. We were in a hostile country, which rendered the greatest

vigilance and circumspection necessary. The pass at the north end of the mountain was generally infested by Blackfeet; and immediately opposite was one of their forts, on the edge of a little thicket, two or three hundred feet from our encampment. We were posted in a grove of beech, on the margin of the lake, and a few hundred feet long, with a narrow *prairillon* on the inner side, bordered by the rocky ridge. In the upper end of this grove we cleared a circular space about 40 feet in diameter, and with the felled timber and interwoven branches surrounded it with a breastwork 5 feet in height. A gap was left for a gate on the inner side, by which the animals were to be driven in and secured, while the men slept around the little work. It was half hidden by the foliage, and, garrisoned by twelve resolute men, would have set at defiance any band of savages which might chance to discover them in the interval of our absence. Fifteen of the best mules, with fourteen men, were selected for the mountain party. Our provisions consisted of dried meat for two days, with our little stock of coffee and some macaroni. In addition to the barometer and thermometer I took with me a sextant spy-glass, and we had, of course, our compasses. In charge of the camp I left Brenier, one of my most trustworthy men, who possessed the most determined courage.

August 12.—Early in the morning we left the camp, fifteen in number, well armed, of course, and mounted on our best mules. A pack animal carried our provisions, with a coffee-pot and kettle and three or four tin cups. Every man had a blanket strapped over his saddle, to serve for his bed, and the instruments were carried by turns on their backs. We entered directly on rough and rocky ground, and, just after crossing the ridge, had the good fortune to shoot an antelope. We heard the roar, and had a glimpse of a waterfall as we rode along; and, crossing in our way two fine streams, tributary to the Colorado, in about two hours' ride we reached the top of the first row or range of the mountains. Here, again, a view of the most romantic beauty met our eyes. It seemed as if, from the vast expanse of uninteresting prairie we had passed over, nature had collected all her beauties together in one chosen place. We were overlooking a deep valley, which was entirely occupied by three lakes, and from the brink the surrounding ridges rose precipitously 500 and 1,000 feet, covered with the dark green of the balsam pine, relieved on the border of the lake with the light foliage of the aspen. They all communicated with each other; and the green of the waters, common to mountain lakes of great depth, showed that it would be impossible to cross them. The surprise manifested by our guides when these impassable obstacles suddenly barred our progress proved that they were among the hidden treasures of the place, unknown even to the wandering trappers of the region. Descending the hill, we proceeded to make our way along the margin to the southern extremity. A narrow strip of angular fragments of rock sometimes afforded a rough pathway for our mules; but generally we rode along the shelving side, occasionally scrambling up, at a considerable risk of tumbling back into the lake.

The slope was frequently 60°. The pines grew densely together, and the ground was covered with the branches and trunks of trees. The air was fragrant with the odor of the pines; and I realized this delightful morning the pleasure of breathing that mountain air which makes a constant theme of the hunter's praise, and which now made us feel as if we had all been drinking some exhilarating gas. The depths of this unexplored forest were a place to delight the heart of a botanist. There was a rich undergrowth of plants and numerous gay-colored flowers in brilliant bloom. We reached the outlet at length, where some freshly barked willows that lay in the water showed that beaver had been recently at work. There were some small brown squirrels jumping about in the pines and a couple of large mallard ducks swimming about in the stream.

The hills on this southern end were low, and the lake looked like a mimic sea as the waves broke on the sandy beach in the force of a strong breeze. There was a pretty open spot, with fine grass for our mules; and we made our noon halt on the beach, under the shade of

some large hemlocks. We resumed our journey after a halt of about an hour, making our way up the ridge on the western side of the lake. In search of smoother ground, we rode a little inland, and, passing through groves of aspen, soon found ourselves again among the pines. Emerging from these, we struck the summit of the ridge above the upper end of the lake.

We had reached a very elevated point; and in the valley below and among the hills were a number of lakes at different levels, some two or three hundred feet above others, with which they communicated by foaming torrents. Even to our great height, the roar of the cataracts came up; and we could see them leaping down in lines of snowy foam. From this scene of busy waters, we turned abruptly into the stillness of a forest, where we rode among the open bolls of the pines over a lawn of verdant grass, having strikingly the air of cultivated grounds. This led us, after a time, among masses of rock, which had no vegetable earth but in hollows and crevices, though still the pine forest continued. Towards evening we reached a defile, or rather a hole in the mountains, entirely shut in by dark pine-covered rocks.

A small stream, with a scarcely perceptible current, flowed through a level bottom of perhaps 80 yards' width where the grass was saturated with water. Into this the mules were turned, and were neither hobbled nor picketed during the night, as the fine pasturage took away all temptation to stray; and we made our bivouac in the pines. The surrounding masses were all of granite. While supper was being prepared, I set out on an excursion in the neighborhood, accompanied by one of my men. We wandered about among the crags and ravines until dark, richly repaid for our walk by a fine collection of plants, many of them in full bloom. Ascending a peak to find the place of our camp, we saw that the little defile in which we lay communicated with the long green valley of some stream, which, here locked up in the mountains, far away to the south, found its way in a dense forest to the plains.

Looking along its upward course, it seemed to conduct by a smooth gradual slope directly towards the peak, which, from long consultation as we approached the mountain, we had decided to be the highest of the range. Pleased with the discovery of so fine a road for the next day, we hastened down to the camp, where we arrived just in time for supper. Our table service was rather scant; and we held the meat in our hands, and clean rocks made good plates on which to spread our macaroni. Among all the strange places on which we had occasion to encamp during our long journey, none have left so vivid an impression on my mind as the camp of this evening. The disorder of the masses which surrounded us, the little hole through which we saw the stars overhead, the dark pines where we slept, and the rocks lit up with the glow of our fires made a night picture of very wild beauty.

August 13.—The morning was bright and pleasant, just cool enough to make exercise agreeable; and we soon entered the defile I had seen the preceding day. It was smoothly carpeted with a soft grass and scattered over with groups of flowers, of which yellow was the predominant color. Sometimes we were forced by an occasional difficult pass to pick our way on a narrow ledge along the side of the defile, and the mules were frequently on their knees; but these obstructions were rare, and we journeyed on in the sweet morning air, delighted at our good fortune in having found such a beautiful entrance to the mountains. This road continued for about 3 miles, when we suddenly reached its termination in one of the grand views which at every turn meet the traveller in this magnificent region. Here the defile up which we had travelled opened out into a small lawn, where, in a little lake, the stream had its source.

There were some fine *asters* in bloom, but all the flowering plants appeared to seek the shelter of the rocks and to be of lower growth than below, as if they loved the warmth of the soil, and kept out of the way of the winds. Immediately at our feet a precipitous descent led to a confusion of defiles, and before us rose the mountains as we have represented them in the view on page 461. It is

not by the splendor of far-off views, which have lent such a glory to the Alps, that these impress the mind, but by a gigantic disorder of enormous masses and a savage sublimity of naked rock in wonderful contrast with innumerable green spots of a rich floral beauty shut up in their stern recesses. Their wildness seems well suited to the character of the people who inhabit the country.

I determined to leave our animals here and make the rest of our way on foot. The peak appeared so near that there was no doubt of our returning before night; and a few men were left in charge of the mules, with our provisions and blankets. We took with us nothing but our arms and instruments, and, as the day had become warm, the greater part left our coats. Having made an early dinner, we started again. We were soon involved in the most ragged precipices, nearing the central chain very slowly, and rising but little. The first ridge hid a succession of others; and when, with great fatigue and difficulty, we had climbed up 500 feet, it was but to make an equal descent on the other side. All these intervening places were filled with small deep lakes, which met the eye in every direction, descending from one level to another, sometimes under bridges formed by huge fragments of granite, beneath which was heard the roar of the water. These constantly obstructed our path, forcing us to make long détours, frequently obliged to retrace our steps, and frequently falling among the rocks. Maxwell was precipitated towards the face of a precipice, and saved himself from going over by throwing himself flat on the ground. We clambered on, always expecting with every ridge that we crossed to reach the foot of the peaks, and always disappointed, until about four o'clock, when, pretty well worn out, we reached the shore of a little lake in which there was a rocky island, and from which we obtained the view given in the frontispiece. We remained here a short time to rest, and continued on around the lake, which had in some places a beach of white sand, and in others was bound with rocks, over which the way was difficult and dangerous, as the water from innumerable springs made them very slippery.

By the time we had reached the farther side of the lake, we found ourselves all exceedingly fatigued, and, much to the satisfaction of the whole party, we encamped. The spot we had chosen was a broad, flat rock, in some measure protected from the winds by the surrounding crags, and the trunks of fallen pines afforded us bright fires. Near by was a foaming torrent which tumbled into the little lake about 150 feet below us, and which, by way of distinction, we have called Island Lake. We had reached the upper limit of the piney region; as above this point no tree was to be seen, and patches of snow lay everywhere around us on the cold sides of the rocks. The flora of the region we had traversed since leaving our mules was extremely rich, and among the characteristic plants the scarlet flowers of the *Dodecatheon dentatum* everywhere met the eye in great abundance. A small green ravine, on the edge of which we were encamped, was filled with a profusion of alpine plants in brilliant bloom. From barometrical observations made during our three days' sojourn at this place, its elevation above the Gulf of Mexico is 10,000 feet. During the day we had seen no sign of animal life; but among the rocks here we heard what was supposed to be the bleat of a young goat, which we searched for with hungry activity, and found to proceed from a small animal of a gray color, with short ears and no tail,—probably the Siberian squirrel. We saw a considerable number of them, and, with the exception of a small bird like a sparrow, it is the only inhabitant of this elevated part of the mountains. On our return we saw below this lake large flocks of the mountain-goat. We had nothing to eat to-night. Lajeunesse with several others took their guns and sallied out in search of a goat, but returned unsuccessful. At sunset the barometer stood at 20.522, the attached thermometer 50°. Here we had the misfortune to break our thermometer, having now only that attached to the barometer. I was taken ill shortly after we had encamped, and continued so until late in the night, with violent headache and vomiting. This was probably caused by the excessive fatigue

I had undergone and want of food, and perhaps also in some measure by the rarity of the air. The night was cold, as a violent gale from the north had sprung up at sunset, which entirely blew away the heat of the fires. The cold and our granite beds had not been favorable to sleep, and we were glad to see the face of the sun in the morning. Not being delayed by any preparation for breakfast, we set out immediately.

On every side as we advanced was heard the roar of waters and of a torrent, which we followed up a short distance until it expanded into a lake about one mile in length. On the northern side of the lake was a bank of ice, or rather of snow covered with a crust of ice. Carson had been our guide into the mountain, and agreeably to his advice we left this little valley and took to the ridges again, which we found extremely broken and where we were again involved among precipices. Here were ice-fields; among which we were all dispersed, seeking each the best path to ascend the peak. Mr. Preuss attempted to walk along the upper edge of one of these fields, which sloped away at an angle of about twenty degrees; but his feet slipped from under him, and he went plunging down the plane. A few hundred feet below, at the bottom, were some fragments of sharp rock, on which he landed, and, though he turned a couple of somersets, fortunately received no injury beyond a few bruises. Two of the men, Clément Lambert and Descoteaux, had been taken ill, and lay down on the rocks a short distance below; and at this point I was attacked with headache and giddiness, accompanied by vomiting, as on the day before. Finding myself unable to proceed, I sent the barometer over to Mr. Preuss, who was in a gap two or three hundred yards distant, desiring him to reach the peak, if possible, and take an observation there. He found himself unable to proceed farther in that direction, and took an observation where the barometer stood at 19.401, attached thermometer 50° in the gap. Carson, who had gone over to him, succeeded in reaching one of the snowy summits of the main ridge, whence he saw the peak towards which all our efforts had been directed towering 800 or 1,000 feet into the air above him. In the mean time, finding himself grow rather worse than better, and doubtful how far my strength would carry me, I sent Basil Lajeunesse with four men back to the place where the mules had been left.

We were now better acquainted with the topography of the country; and I directed him to bring back with him, if it were in any way possible, four or five mules, with provisions and blankets. With me were Maxwell and Ayer; and, after we had remained nearly an hour on the rock, it became so unpleasantly cold, though the day was bright, that we set out on our return to the camp, at which we all arrived safely, straggling in one after the other. I continued ill during the afternoon, but became better towards sundown, when my recovery was completed by the appearance of Basil and four men, all mounted. The men who had gone with him had been too much fatigued to return, and were relieved by those in charge of the horses; but in his powers of endurance Basil resembled more a mountain-goat than a man. They brought blankets and provisions, and we enjoyed well our dried meat and a cup of good coffee. We rolled ourselves up in our blankets, and, with our feet turned to a blazing fire, slept soundly until morning.

August 15.—It had been supposed that we had finished with the mountains; and the evening before it had been arranged that Carson should set out at daylight, and return to breakfast at the Camp of the Mules, taking with him all but four or five men, who were to stay with me and bring back the mules and instruments. Accordingly, at the break of day they set out. With Mr. Preuss and myself remained Basil Lajeunesse, Clément Lambert, Janisse, and Descoteaux. When we had secured strength for the day by a hearty breakfast, we covered what remained, which was enough for one meal, with rocks, in order that it might be safe from any marauding bird, and saddling our mules, turned our faces once more towards the peaks. This time we determined to proceed quietly and cautiously, deliberately resolved to accomplish our object, if it were within the compass of

human means. We were of opinion that a long defile which lay to the left of yesterday's route would lead us to the foot of the main peak. Our mules had been refreshed by the fine grass in the little ravine at the island camp, and we intended to ride up the defile as far as possible, in order to husband our strength for the main ascent. Though this was a fine passage, still it was a defile of the most rugged mountains known, and we had many a rough and steep slippery place to cross before reaching the end. In this place the sun rarely shone. Snow lay along the border of the small stream which flowed through it, and occasional icy passages made the footing of the mules very insecure; and the rocks and ground were moist with the trickling waters in this spring of mighty rivers. We soon had the satisfaction to find ourselves riding along the huge wall which forms the central summits of the chain. There at last it rose by our sides, a nearly perpendicular wall of granite, terminating 2,000 to 3,000 feet above our heads in a serrated line of broken, jagged cones. We rode on until we came almost immediately below the main peak, which I denominated the Snow Peak, as it exhibited more snow to the eye than any of the neighboring summits. Here were three small lakes of a green color, each perhaps 1,000 yards in diameter, and apparently very deep. These lay in a kind of chasm; and, according to the barometer, we had attained but a few hundred feet above the Island Lake. The barometer here stood at 20.450, attached thermometer 70°.

We managed to get our mules up to a little bench about 100 feet above the lakes, where there was a patch of good grass, and turned them loose to graze. During our rough ride to this place, they had exhibited a wonderful surefootedness. Parts of the defile were filled with angular, sharp fragments of rock,—3 or 4 and 8 or 10 feet cube,—and among these they had worked their way, leaping from one narrow point to another, rarely making a false step, and giving us no occasion to dismount. Having divested ourselves of every unnecessary encumbrance, we commenced the ascent. This time, like experienced travellers, we did not press ourselves, but climbed leisurely, sitting down as soon as we found breath beginning to fail. At intervals we reached places where a number of springs gushed from the rocks, and about 1,800 feet above the lakes came to the snow-line. From this point our progress was uninterrupted climbing. Hitherto I had worn a pair of thick moccasins, with soles of *parflêche;* but here I put on a light thin pair, which I had brought for the purpose, as now the use of our toes became necessary to a further advance. I availed myself of a sort of comb of the mountains, which stood against the wall like a buttress, and which the wind and the solar radiation, joined to the steepness of the smooth rock, had kept almost entirely free from snow. Up this I made my way rapidly. Our cautious method of advancing in the outset had spared my strength; and, with the exception of a slight disposition to headache, I felt no remains of yesterday's illness. In a few minutes we reached a point where the buttress was overhanging, and there was no other way of surmounting the difficulty than by passing around one side of it, which was the face of a vertical precipice of several hundred feet.

Putting hands and feet in the crevices between the blocks, I succeeded in getting over it, and, when I reached the top, found my companions in a small valley below. Descending to them, we continued climbing, and in a short time reached the crest. I sprang upon the summit, and another step would have precipitated me into an immense snow-field 500 feet below. To the edge of this field was a sheer icy precipice; and then, with a gradual fall, the field sloped off for about a mile, until it struck the foot of another lower ridge. I stood on a narrow crest, about 3 feet in width, with an inclination of about 20° N. 51° E. As soon as I had gratified the first feelings of curiosity, I descended, and each man ascended in his turn; for I would only allow one at a time to mount the unstable and precarious slab, which it seemed a breath would hurl into the abyss below. We mounted the barometer in the snow of the summit, and, fixing a ramrod in a crevice, unfurled the national flag to wave in the breeze where never flag waved before. During our morning's ascent we had met

no sign of animal life except the small, sparrow-like bird already mentioned. A stillness the most profound and a terrible solitude forced themselves constantly on the mind as the great features of the place. Here on the summit where the stillness was absolute, unbroken by any sound, and the solitude complete, we thought ourselves beyond the region of animated life; but, while we were sitting on the rock, a solitary bee (*bromus, the humble-bee*) came winging his flight from the eastern valley, and lit on the knee of one of the men.

It was a strange place—the icy rock and the highest peak of the Rocky Mountains—for a lover of warm sunshine and flowers; and we pleased ourselves with the idea that he was the first of his species to cross the mountain barrier, a solitary pioneer to foretell the advance of civilization. I believe that a moment's thought would have made us let him continue his way unharmed; but we carried out the law of this country, where all animated nature seems at war, and, seizing him immediately, put him in at least a fit place,—in the leaves of a large book, among the flowers we had collected on our way. The barometer stood at 18.293, the attached thermometer at 44°, giving for the elevation of this summit 13,570 feet above the Gulf of Mexico, which may be called the highest flight of the bee. It is certainly the highest known flight of that insect. From the description given by Mackenzie of the mountains where he crossed them with that of a French officer still farther to the north and Colonel Long's measurements to the south, joined to the opinion of the oldest traders of the country, it is presumed that this is the highest peak of the Rocky Mountains. The day was sunny and bright, but a slight shining mist hung over the lower plains, which interfered with our view of the surrounding country. On one side we overlooked innumerable lakes and streams, the spring of the Colorado of the Gulf of California; and on the other was the Wind River Valley, where were the heads of the Yellowstone branch of the Missouri. Far to the north we just could discover the snowy heads of the *Trois Tetons*, where were the sources of the Missouri and Columbia rivers; and at the southern extremity of the ridge the peaks were plainly visible, among which were some of the springs of the Nebraska or Platte River. Around us the whole scene had one main striking feature, which was that of terrible convulsion. Parallel to its length, the ridge was split into chasms and fissures, between which rose the thin, lofty walls, terminated with slender minarets and columns, which is correctly represented in the view from the camp on Island Lake. According to the barometer, the little crest of the wall on which we stood was 3,570 feet above that place and 2,780 above the little lakes at the bottom, immediately at our feet. Our camp at the Two Hills (an astronomical station) bore south 3° east, which with a bearing afterwards obtained from a fixed position enabled us to locate the peak. The bearing of the *Trois Tetons* was north 50° west, and the direction of the central ridge of the Wind River Mountains south 39° east. The summit rock was gneiss, succeeded by sienitic gneiss. Sienite and feldspar succeeded in our descent to the snow-line, where we found a feldspathic granite. I had remarked that the noise produced by the explosion of our pistols had the usual degree of loudness, but was not in the least prolonged, expiring almost simultaneously. Having now made what observations our means afforded, we proceeded to descend. We had accomplished an object of laudable ambition, and beyond the strict order of our instructions. We had climbed the loftiest peak of the Rocky Mountains, and looked down upon the snow 1,000 feet below, and, standing where never human foot had stood before, felt the exultation of first explorers. It was about two o'clock when we left the summit; and, when we reached the bottom, the sun had already sunk behind the wall, and the day was drawing to a close. It would have been pleasant to have lingered here and on the summit longer; but we hurried away as rapidly as the ground would permit, for it was an object to regain our party as soon as possible, not knowing what accident the next hour might bring forth.

We reached our deposit of provisions at nightfall. Here was not the inn which awaits the tired traveller on his return from Mont Blanc, or the orange groves of

South America, with their refreshing juices and soft, fragrant air; but we found our little *cache* of dried meat and coffee undisturbed. Though the moon was bright, the road was full of precipices, and the fatigue of the day had been great. We therefore abandoned the idea of rejoining our friends, and lay down on the rock, and in spite of the cold slept soundly.

French, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, historian; born in Richmond, Va., June 8, 1799; removed to Louisiana in 1830; retired from business in 1853; and removed to New York City. He published *Bibliographia Americana; Historical Collections of Louisiana; History of the Iron Trade of the United States; Historical Annals of North America.* He died in New York City, May 30, 1877.

French, DANIEL CHESTER, sculptor; born in Exeter, N. H., April 20, 1850; educated in Boston, Mass., and in Florence, Italy; had a studio in Washington, D. C., in 1876–78, and then established himself in Florence. His best-known works are *The Minute-Man of Concord,* in Concord, N. H.; a life-size statue of General Cass, in the Capitol in Washington; *Dr. Gallaudet and His First Deaf-Mute Pupil;* the *Millmore Memorial;* the colossal *Statue of the Republic,* at the World's Columbian Exposition; and the *Garfield Memorial,* in Philadelphia, Pa. In April, 1901, he was chosen by the Lawton Monument Association, of Indianapolis, Ind., to make a memorial to GEN. HENRY W. LAWTON (*q. v.*), who was killed in the battle of San Mateo, Philippine Islands, Dec. 19, 1899.

French, MANSFIELD, clergyman; born in Manchester, Vt., Feb. 21, 1810; settled in New York City in 1858, where he became an earnest abolitionist. In 1862 he examined the conditions of the negroes at Port Royal, and on his return to New York held a great meeting at Cooper Institute, Feb. 10, 1862, which resulted in the establishment of the National Freedman's Relief Association with himself as general agent. In March, 1863, with a corps of teachers, he returned to Port Royal and taught the negroes methods of farming. He rendered important service to the government by organizing an expedition which during one period of the Civil War intercepted telegraphic messages from the Confederate armies and forwarded them to Washington. He died at Pearsall's, L. I., March 15, 1876.

French and Indian War. A fourth intercolonial war between the English and French colonies in America was begun in 1754, in which the Indians, as usual, bore a conspicuous part. The English population (white) in the colonies was then a little more than 1,000,000, planted along the seaboard. The French were 100,000 strong, and occupied the regions of Nova Scotia, the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and a line of trading-posts in the Valley of the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico. The latter, as chiefly traders, had gained great influence over many of the Indian tribes. There was outward peace, but inward war, between the colonists, and it needed only a small matter to kindle a flame of hostilities. After the capture of Louisburg (1745), the French had taken measures to extend and strengthen their dominion in America. Their power became aggressive, and early in 1754 it was evident that they intended to hold military possession of the Ohio and the region around its head-waters. The English attempted to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio. The French seized the post, and completed the fortification (see DUQUESNE, FORT). Washington led provincial troops to recapture it, but was unsuccessful. The colonists appealed to the British government, and received promises of its aid in the impending war; and in 1755 GEN. EDWARD BRADDOCK (*q. v.*) was sent, with regular troops, to command any forces that might be raised in America to resist the French and their Indian allies. Three separate expeditions were planned, one against Fort Duquesne, another against forts on, or near, Lake Ontario, and a third against French forts on Lake Champlain. An expedition against ACADIA (*q. v.*) was also undertaken. The three expeditions failed to accomplish their full purposes.

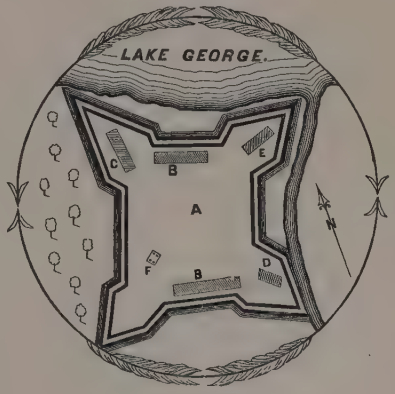
In May, 1756, England declared war against France, and sent Lord Loudoun as chief commander in the colonies, with General Abercrombie as his lieutenant. Expeditions similar to those of 1755 were

MAP OF THE SCENE OF OPERATIONS.

tacked. Louisburg was captured, but Abercrombie, who led the troops towards Lake Champlain, failed in his attack on Ticonderoga. Fort Frontenac, at the foot of Lake Ontario, was captured; so, also, was Fort Duquesne, and its name was changed to Fort Pitt, in compliment to the great prime minister. These successes so alarmed the Indians that, having assembled in council, they agreed not to fight the English any more.

Pitt now resolved to conquer Canada. General Amherst was placed in chief command in America, in the spring of 1759, and a land and naval force was sent over from England. Again three expeditions were put in motion, one to go up the St. Lawrence, to capture Quebec, another to drive the French from Lake Champlain, and force them back to Canada; and

planned, but failed in the execution. The skilled soldier, the Marquis de Montcalm, commanding the French and Indians, captured Oswego, on the southern shore of Lake Ontario. Loudoun proposed to confine the campaign of 1757 to the capture of Louisburg, on Cape Breton. Going there with a large land and naval armament, he was told that the French were too strong for him. He believed it, withdrew, and returned to New York. Meanwhile, Montcalm had strengthened Fort Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain, and captured and destroyed the English fort, William Henry, at the head of Lake George (August, 1757); and so ended the campaign and the leadership of the inefficient Lord Loudoun. William Pitt at this time took the chief control of public affairs in England, and prepared to prosecute the war in America with vigor. Gen. James Abercrombie was placed in chief command in America in 1758, and Admiral Boscawen was sent with a fleet to co-operate. Louisburg, Fort Ticonderoga, and Fort Duquesne were to be at-



FORT WILLIAM HENRY.

a third to attack Fort Niagara, at the mouth of the Niagara River. General Wolfe commanded the expedition against Quebec, General Amherst led the troops against the French on Lake Champlain, and General Prideaux commanded the expedition against Fort Niagara. Prideaux was killed in besieging Fort Niagara, but it was captured under the lead of Sir William Johnson, in July. Amherst drove the French from Lake Champlain into Canada, and they never came back; and he built the strong fortress on Crown Point whose picturesque ruins still attract the attention of the tourist. Wolfe attacked Quebec, and at the moment of victory he was killed. Montcalm, the commander of the French, also perished on the field. In 1760 the French tried to recapture Quebec, but were unsuccessful. Early in September Amherst went down the St. Lawrence and captured Montreal. The conquest of Canada was now completed, and the French and Indian War was essentially ended. The last act in it was a treaty of peace, concluded in Paris in 1763.

OSWEGO IN 1755.

French Assistance. In accordance with the spirit of the treaty of alliance between the United States and France (Feb. 6, 1778), a French fleet was speedily fitted out at Toulon. It consisted of twelve ships of the line and four frigates, commanded by the COUNT D'ESTAING (*q. v.*). This fleet arrived in the Delaware on July 8, 1778, bearing 4,000 French troops. With it came M. Gérard, the first French minister accredited to the United States. Silas Deane also returned from his mission to France in the same vessel (the *Languedoc*), the flagship. Having sent his passengers up to Philadelphia in a frigate, D'Estaing sailed for Sandy Hook, and anchored off the harbor of New York. Lord Howe, who had fortunately for himself left the Delaware a few days before D'Estaing's arrival, was now with his fleet in Raritan Bay, whither the heavy French vessels could not safely follow. On July 22 he sailed, with his squadron, to co-operate with General Sullivan against the British in Rhode Island.

On July 10, 1780, another powerful French fleet, commanded by the Chevalier de Ternay, arrived at Newport, R. I. It was composed of seven ships of the line, besides frigates and transports. The latter bore a French army, 6,000 strong, commanded by Lieutenant-General the Count de Rochambeau. This was the first division intended for the American service, and was the first fruit of Lafayette's persistent personal efforts at the French Court. With wise forethought the official relations between Washington and Rochambeau had been settled by the French government. In order to prevent any difficulties in relation to command between the French and American officers, the French government commissioned Washington a lieutenant-general of the empire. This allowed him to take precedence of Rochambeau and made him commander of the allied armies. On all points of precedence and etiquette the French officers were instructed to give place to the American officers.

At the solicitation of Washington, the French fleet at Newport sailed for the Virginia waters to assist in capturing Arnold, then marauding in Virginia. The fleet was to co-operate with Lafayette, whom Washington had sent to Virginia for the same purpose. The British blockading squadron, which had made its winter-quarters in Gardiner's Bay, at the eastern end of Long Island, pursued the French vessels, and off the Capes of Virginia a sharp naval engagement occurred,

in which the latter were beaten and returned to Newport. This failure on the part of the French fleet caused Lafayette to halt in his march at Annapolis, Md. Two of the French vessels, taking advantage of a storm that disabled the blockading squadron, entered Chesapeake Bay (February, 1781). Thus threatened by land and water, Arnold withdrew to Portsmouth, so far up the Elizabeth River as to be out of the reach of the French ships. There he was reinforced by troops under General Phillips, of the Convention troops, who had been exchanged for General Lincoln. The French ships soon returned to Newport, after making some prizes.

When, on June 2, 1779, the legislature of Virginia unanimously ratified the treaties of alliance and commerce between France and the United States, and the governor had informed the French minister at Philadelphia of the fact, that functionary at once notified his government. Vergennes, on Sept. 27, instructed the minister at Philadelphia (Luzerne) in these words: "During the war it is essential, both for the United States and for us, that their union should be as perfect as possible. When they shall be left to themselves the general confederation will have much difficulty in maintaining itself, and will, perhaps, be replaced by separate confederations. Should this revolution take place, it will weaken the United States, which have not now, and never will have, real and respectable strength except by their union. But it is for themselves alone to make these reflections. We have no right to present them for their consideration, and we have no interest whatever to see America play the part of a power. The possibility of a dissolution of the Union, and the consequent suppression of Congress, leads us to think that nothing can be more conformable to our political interest than separate acts by which each State shall ratify the treaties concluded with France; because in this way every State will be found separately connected with us, whatever may be the fortune of the general confederation." The policy of the French, as well as the Spaniards, towards the United States was purely selfish from beginning to end. The two Bourbon monarchs hated republicanism, and feared the revolution as menacing thrones; and the chief motive in favoring the Americans, especially of France, was to injure England, humble her pride, and weaken her power.

The headquarters of the American army were at Verplanck's Point at the beginning of autumn, 1782, where (about 10,000 strong) it was joined by the French army on its return from Virginia, in September. The latter encamped on the left of the Americans, at Crompond, about 10 miles from Verplanck's Point. They had received orders to proceed to Boston and there embark for the West Indies. They left their encampment near Peekskill Oct. 22, and marched by way of Hartford and Providence. Rochambeau there left the army in charge of Baron de Viomenil and returned to Washington's headquarters on his way to Philadelphia. The French troops reached Boston the first week in December. On the 24th they sailed from Boston, having been in the United States two and a half years. Rochambeau sailed from Annapolis for France Jan. 11, 1783.

French Creek, Action at. The troops collected by Wilkinson on Grenadier Island in 1813 suffered much, for storm after storm swept over Lake Ontario, and snow fell to the depth of 10 inches. A Canadian winter was too near to allow delays on account of the weather, and on Oct. 29 General Brown, with his division, moved forward in boats, in the face of great peril, in a tempest. He landed at French Creek (now Clayton) and took post in a wood. The marine scouts from Kingston discovered Brown on the afternoon of Nov. 1, and two brigs, two schooners, and eight gunboats, filled with infantry, bore down upon him at sunset. Brown had planted a battery of three 18-pounders on a high wooded bluff on the western shore of French Creek, at its mouth, and with it the assailants were driven away. The conflict was resumed at dawn the next morning, with the same result. The British lost many men; the Americans only two killed and four wounded. Meanwhile, troops were coming down the river from Grenadier Island, and there landed on the site of Clayton. Wilkinson arrived there on Nov. 3, and on the morning of the 5th

the army, in 300 bateaux and other boats, moved down the river.

MOUTH OF FRENCH CREEK.

French Decrees. The presence of John Jay in England to make a treaty with Great Britain aroused the French to a sense of the importance of observing its own treaty stipulations with the United States, which had been utterly disregarded since the war with England began. On Jan. 4, 1795, a new decree was issued, giving full force and effect to those clauses of the treaty of commerce (1778) with the United States respecting contraband and the carriage of enemies' goods. When news of the failure of the Americans to elect Jefferson President reached France, the Directory issued a decree (March 2, 1797) purporting to define the authority granted to French cruisers by a former decree. It was intended to annihilate American commerce in European waters. The treaty with America was declared to be so modified as to make American vessels and their cargoes liable to capture for any cause recognized as lawful ground of capture by Jay's treaty. They also decreed that any American found serving on board hostile armed vessels should be treated as pirates, even though they might plead imprisonment and compulsion as an excuse; in other words, American seamen, impressed by the British, were made liable to be hanged by the French. On Jan. 18, 1798, a sweeping decree against American commerce was promulgated by the French Directory. It declared to be good prizes all vessels having merchandise on board the production of England or her colonies, whoever the owner of the merchantman might be; and forbade, also, the entrance into any French port of any vessel which, at any previous part of her voyage, had touched at any English possession.

French Depredations. On Feb. 27, 1797, the Secretary of State laid before Congress a full exhibit of the wrongs inflicted by the French on American commerce. Skipwith, American consul-general in France, had presented to the Directory 170 claims, many of them for provisions furnished, examined, and allowed; for 103 vessels embargoed at Bordeaux, for which promised indemnity had never been paid; and to these wrongs were added enormous depredations then going on in the West Indies, seizing and confiscating the property of Americans without restraint. American vessels were captured and their crews treated with indignity and cruelty. Encouraged by the accession of Spain to their alliance and the victories of Bonaparte in Italy, the French Directory grew every day more insolent. They were countenanced by a great party in the United States, which had failed by only two votes to give a President to the American Republic. See FRANCE, RELATIONS WITH.

French Domain in America. On Oct. 7, 1763, the King of England (George III.), by proclamation, erected out of the territory acquired from the French by the treaty of Paris three provinces on the continent—namely, east Florida, west Florida, and Quebec; and an insular province styled Grenada. East Florida was bounded on the north by the St. Mary's

River, the intervening region thence to the Altamaha being annexed to Georgia. The boundaries of west Florida were the Apalachicola, the Gulf of Mexico, the Mississippi, and lakes Pontchartrain and Maurepas; and on the north by a line due east from the mouth of the Yazoo River, so as to include the French settlements near Natchez. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were in accordance with the claims of New York and Massachusetts, being a line from the southern end of Lake Nepissing, striking the St. Lawrence at lat. 45° N., and following that parallel across the foot of Lake Champlain to the head-waters of the Connecticut River, and thence along the highlands which form the water-shed between the St. Lawrence and the sea. Grenada was composed of the islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. See FLORIDA.

French Forts in America. The French, for the security of the interior territory of America, built a fort in the Illinois country, in lat. 41° 30′, as a check upon the several tribes of the Sioux who were not in alliance with them. They also built a fort at the junction of the Illinois and a large tributary, and five other forts from the junction of the Missouri and Mississippi rivers to Kaskaskia. The fort at the latter place was regarded as of great importance, because it was "the pass and outlet of the convoys of Louisiana and of the traders and hunters of the post at Detroit, and that of the greater part of the savage nations." Another, on the banks of the Ohio, opposite the mouth of the Tennessee River, was considered "the key of the colony of Louisiana," and would obstruct the designs of the English in alienating the Indians of the Ohio. It would also, Vaudreuil thought, restrain the incursions of the Cherokees on the Wabash and Mississippi rivers, check the Chickasaws, and by this means secure the navigation of the Mississippi and a free communication between Louisiana and Canada. There were at that time about sixty forts in Canada, most of which had around them fine self-supporting settlements; and the establishments, posts, and settlements in Louisiana at that time (1756) employed about 2,000 soldiers.

French Mills. After the battle at CHRYSLER'S FIELD (*q. v.*) the American army went into winter-quarters at French Mills, on the Salmon River. The waters of that stream were freezing, for it was late in November (1813). General Brown proceeded to make the troops as comfort-

FRENCH MILLS IN 1860.

able as possible. Huts were constructed, yet, as the winter came on very severe, the soldiers suffered much; for many of them had lost their blankets and extra clothing in the disasters near Grenadier Island, at the beginning of their voyage down the St. Lawrence, and in the battle at Chrysler's Field. Until the huts were built, even the sick had no shelter but tents. Provisions were scarce, and the surrounding country was a wilderness. They were in the midst of the cold of a Canadian winter, for they were in lat. 45° N. In their distress they were tempted by British emissaries, who circulated placards among the soldiers containing the following words: "NOTICE. — All American soldiers who may wish to quit the unnatural war in which they are at present engaged will receive the arrears due them by the American government, to the extent of five months' pay, on their arrival at the British outposts. No man shall be required to serve against his own country." It is believed that not a single soldier of American birth was enticed away by this allurement. In February, 1814, the army began to move away from their winter encampment. The flotilla was destroyed and the barracks burned. Brown, with a larger portion of the troops, marched for Sackett's Harbor, and the remainder accompanied Wilkinson, the commander-in-chief, to Plattsburg.

LANDING-PLACE OF TROOPS ON THE SALMON RIVER.

French Neutrals. See ACADIA.

French Politics in America. The progress of the French Revolution, decisively begun at the meeting of the States-General (May 5, 1789), was contemporaneous with the organization of the American Republic under the new Constitution. The Americans naturally sympathized with the French people avowedly struggling to obtain political freedom; and the influence of that sympathy was speedily seen in the rapid development of the Republican party in the United States. The supposed advent of liberty in France had been hailed with enthusiasm in America, but common-sense and a wise prudence caused many thinking Americans to doubt the genuineness of French democracy. This tended to a more distinct defining of party lines between the Federalists and Republicans. This enthusiasm was shown by public festivals in honor of the French revolutionists. At a celebration in honor of the temporary conquest of the Austrian Netherland by Dumouriez (1792), held in Boston, Jan. 24, 1793, a select party of 300 sat down to a feast in Faneuil Hall, over which Samuel Adams, then lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts, presided. Speeches, toasts, music—all were indicative of sympathy for the French cause. The children of the Boston schools were paraded in the streets, and to each one was given a cake imprinted with the words "Liberty and Equality." Similar celebrations were held in other places; and the public feeling in favor of the French was intensified by the arrival

of M. Genet as representative of the French Republic. That was on April 9, 1793. He brought with him news of the declaration of war against England. It had reached New York five days before. More fiercely than ever the two parties were arrayed against each other; and now the Federalists were first called the "British party," and the Republicans the "French party." So long as the French Republic, so miscalled, lasted, the politics of France exerted marked influence in the United States. See GENET, EDMOND CHARLES.

French Privateers. On the arrival of Citizen Genet at Charleston, S. C., he fitted out privateers to depredate on British commerce, issued commissions for their commanders, and conferred authority upon French consuls each to create himself into an admiralty court to decide upon the disposition of prizes brought into port by French cruisers. Genet had commissioned two, when the United States government interfered. He persisted, in defiance of the government, and very soon quite a number were afloat—namely, *Sans Culotte, Citizen Genet, Cincinnatus, Vainqueur de la Bastille, L'Embuscade, Anti-George, Carmagnole, Roland,* and *Concord. L'Embuscade,* the frigate that brought Genet to America, and the *Genet,* were both fitted out as privateers at Charleston. The others went out of the ports of Savannah, Boston, and Philadelphia. These captured more than fifty English vessels, quite a number of them within American waters. After Genet had been warned that the fitting-out of privateers in American ports was a violation of the law, he had the *Little Sarah* (a vessel captured by one of the privateers and sent to Philadelphia) made into a letter-of-marque under the very eyes of the government, and called the vessel *The Little Democrat.* Governor Mifflin prepared to seize the vessel before it should leave port, when Jefferson, tender towards the French minister, waited on Genet in person to persuade him not to send the vessel to sea. Genet stormed, and declared his crew would resist. He finally promised that the vessel should only drop down the river a little way. That "little way" was far out of the reach of militia or other forces. Very soon afterwards, in violation of his solemn assurance, Genet ordered *The Little Democrat* to go to sea, and others followed. In the last year of John Adams's administration, and before there was a final settlement of difficulties with France, quite a large number of French privateers yet at sea fell into the hands of American cruisers. These, with others previously taken, made the number captured about fifty. There were also recaptures of numerous merchant vessels which had been previously taken by the French.

French Refugees in America. The colony of Huguenots planted in America by Coligni disappeared, but the revocation of the EDICT OF NANTES (*q. v.*) in 1685 caused another and larger emigration to America. The refugees in England had been kindly assisted there, and after the accession of William and Mary Parliament voted $75,000 to be distributed "among persons of quality and all such as, through age or infirmity, were unable to support themselves." The King sent a large body of them to Virginia, and lands were allotted them on the James River; others purchased lands of the proprietaries of Carolina, and settled on the Santee River; while others—merchants and artisans — settled in Charleston. These Huguenots were a valuable acquisition to the colonies. In the South they planted vineyards and made wine. A large number of them settled in the province of New York, chiefly in Westchester and Ulster counties, and in the city of New York.

French Settlements in America. Callieres, who succeeded Frontenac as governor of Canada in 1699, sent messages to the Five Nations with the alternative of peace or an exterminating war, against which, it is alleged, the English could not render them assistance. Their jealousy had been excited against the latter by a claim of Bellomont to build forts on their territory, and they were induced to send a deputation to a grand assembly at Montreal of all the Indian allies of the French. There a treaty of friendship was concluded; and so the French, who had been restrained by the hostility of the Iroquois Confederacy, secured a free passage towards the Mississippi. Almost immediately 100 settlers, with a Jesuit leader,

were sent to take possession of the strait between lakes Erie and St. Clair. They built a fort, and called the spot Detroit, the French name for a strait or sound. It soon became the favorite settlement of western Canada. Villages of French settlers soon grew up around the Jesuit missionary stations at Kaskaskia and Cahokia, on the eastern bank of the Mississippi, between the mouths of the Illinois and Ohio. These movements occasioned no little alarm to the English in New York and New England.

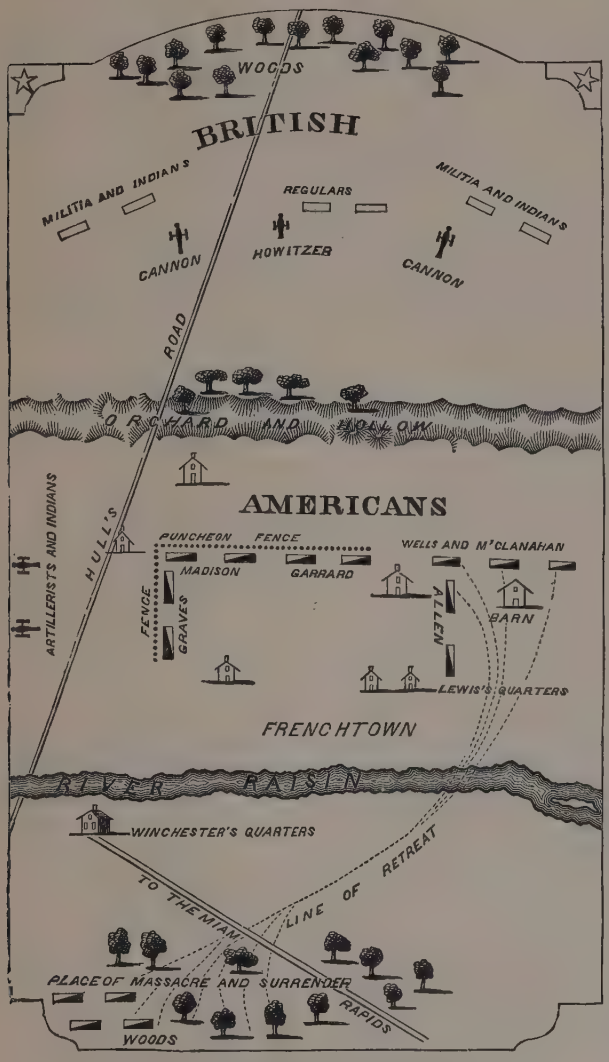
French Spoliation Claims. For more than a century what are known as the French spoliation claims have been vainly urged on the attention of Congress. These claims originated as follows: In the year 1778, France and the United States entered upon a treaty of "commerce and amity," by which each government pledged itself to exempt from search or seizure all vessels belonging to the other, even though such vessels were carrying the goods of its enemies; that is, each agreed to permit its commercial ally to carry on trade with an enemy, unless such trade dealt in goods that were known as contraband of war. At that time these two countries were allied in war against Great Britain, but when, some time after the close of the Revolutionary War, France was again involved in hostilities with that country, the United States refused to join her and proclaimed strict neutrality. France now found her American trade interfered with by Great Britain, while she was bound by treaty not to interfere with Great Britain's trade with the United States. Considering this injustice, she broke her treaty with this country, and confiscated the cargoes of American vessels trading with Great Britain. This country was in no mood or condition then to go to war with France, so the government overlooked these hostile acts, and, in 1797, and again in 1799, made overtures for a peaceful settlement. The claims of these American vessel-owners and merchants who had been despoiled of their property were presented by our commissioners, but the French government refused to take any account of them unless we would allow a counter-claim against the United States for a breach of the treaty of alliance. Much diplomatic fencing was resorted to, but there was no changing the French position on the subject.

The change in the government of France by the Revolution of 1830 was a favorable time for Mr. Rives, the American minister to France, to again propose a settlement. The French, as before stated, had set up a counter-claim of the non-fulfilment of the treaty of 1778; but the American government argued that subsequent events had exonerated the United States from all demands under that treaty. Mr. Rives succeeded in negotiating a treaty by which the long-pending controversy was closed. By it the French government agreed to pay to the United States, in complete satisfaction of all claims of American citizens for spoliations, nearly $5,000,000, in six annual instalments, $300,000 to be allowed by the American government to France for French citizens for ancient supplies, accounts, or other claims. The United States Senate ratified the treaty, but the French Chamber of Deputies refused to make the appropriation to carry it out, and an unpleasant dispute arose between the two governments. The matter was finally settled, as between the two governments, on the basis of the treaty in 1836.

Those American merchants, however, who had claims against the French government, objected to yielding up these claims to settle a debt of the government, and accordingly petitioned Congress to indemnify their losses. They argued, and justly, that France had admitted the fairness of these claims in yielding her own claims to satisfy them, and that the United States, in accepting this relinquishment, received a consideration fully worth the sum of the private claims, and thus bound herself in honor to pay them. However, this petition failed of its effect, and though repeated again and again, the claimants have not yet succeeded in securing the settlement of the claims. Committees of both Houses, it is true, have several times reported in favor of the claims, and an act appropriating money for them has twice passed Congress. This was vetoed the first time by President Polk, and the second time by President Pierce, and, but for the lack of one vote in the Senate, the first of these would have passed over the President's veto. Many of our greatest statemen—

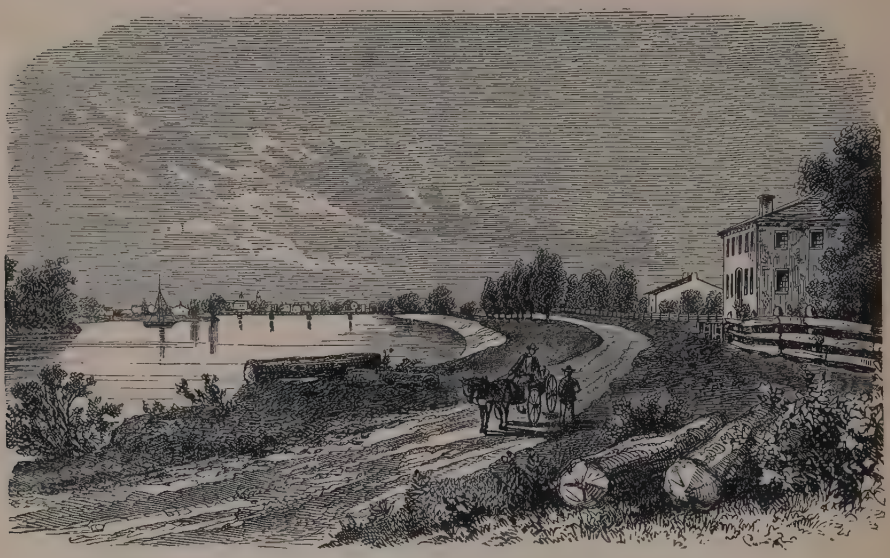
Daniel Webster, Thomas Benton, Silas Wright, and others—have championed the cause of these claims in Congress with much eloquence. In 1883 a bill passed the Senate authorizing the court of claims to investigate these long-standing cases and report upon them. This bill passed the House in January, 1885, and was approved by the President. The original claimants have long since passed away, and, with few exceptions, their children are also dead, but grandchildren and great-grandchildren may at least reap the benefit of tardy justice.

Frenchtown, Massacre at. In the middle of December, 1812, General Harrison wrote the War Department that, if no political or other necessity existed for the recovery of Michigan and the invasion of Canada, the enormous expense of transportation, and the sufferings of men and beasts in the task, pleaded for a remission of efforts to attain that recovery until spring. He was directed to use his own judgment in the matter, and was assured that immediate measures would be taken for recovering the control of Lake Erie to the Americans. He was instructed, in case he should penetrate Canada, not to offer the inhabitants anything but protection; and, secondly, not to make temporary acquisitions, but to proceed so surely that he might hold fast any territory he should acquire. Other troops having arrived, Harrison resolved to attempt the capture of Fort Malden. His whole effective force did not exceed 6,300 men. He designated the brigades from Pennsylvania and Virginia, and one from Ohio, under Gen. Simon Perkins, as the right wing of the army; and the Kentuckians, under Gen. James Wilkinson, as the left wing. So arranged, the army pressed forward towards the rapids of the Maumee, the designated general rendezvous. Winchester, with 800 young Kentuckians, reached



MAP OF THE MASSACRE AT FRENCHTOWN.

there on Jan. 10, 1813, and established a fortified camp, when he learned that a party of British and Indians were occupying Frenchtown, on the Raisin



MONROE, FROM THE BATTLE-GROUND.

River (now Monroe, Mich.), 20 miles south of Detroit. He sent a detachment, under Colonels Allen and Lewis, to protect the inhabitants in that region, who drove the enemy out of the hamlet of about thirty families, and held it until the arrival of Winchester, on the 20th, with about 300 men. General Proctor was then at Fort Malden, 18 miles distant, with a considerable body of British and Indians. With 1,500 of these he crossed the Detroit River, and marched stealthily at night to destroy the Americans. Winchester was informed late in the evening of the 21st that a foe was approaching. He did not believe it, and at midnight was in perfect repose. The sentinels were posted, but, the weather being intensely cold, pickets were sent out upon roads leading to the town. Just as the drummer-boy was beating the reveillé, in the gray twilight of the 22d, the sharp crack of a rifle, followed by the rattle of musketry, awoke the sleepers. Bomb-shells and canister-shot immediately succeeded in a shower upon the camp. The Americans, seizing their arms, tried to defend themselves. Very soon the soldiers fled to the woods, when the savages, who swarmed there, smote them fearfully, with gleaming hatchets. The British and their dusky allies made it a war of extermination. Winchester was captured, and he concluded an arrangement with Proctor to surrender his troops on condition that ample provision should be made for their protection against the Indians. The promise was given and immediately violated.

Proctor, knowing Harrison (who had advanced to the Maumee) to be near, hastened towards Malden with his captives, leaving the sick and wounded prisoners behind. The Indians followed awhile, when they turned back, murdered and scalped those who were unable to travel as captives, set fire to the houses, and took many prisoners to Detroit to procure exorbitant prices for their ransom. Proctor's indifference to this outrage, and the dreadful suspicion, which his character warranted, that he encouraged the butchery of the defenceless people, was keenly felt all through the West, particularly in

Kentucky, for most of the victims were of the flower of society in that State; and for a long time afterwards the most inspiriting war-cry of the Kentucky soldiers was, "Remember the River Raisin!"

French West Indies, The. Canada conquered, the British turned their arms against the French West India Islands, in which the colonies participated. Gaudeloupe had already been taken. General Monckton, after submitting his commission as governor to the council of New York, sailed from that port (January, 1762), with two line-of-battle ships, 100 transports, and 1,200 regulars and colonial troops. Major Gates (afterwards adjutant-general of the Continental army) went with Monckton as aide-de-camp, and carried to England the news of the capture of Martinique. Richard Montgomery (afterwards a general in the Continental army) held the rank of captain in this expedition. The colonial troops were led by Gen. Phineas Lyman. Grenada, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent's—indeed, every island in the Caribbean group possessed by the French—fell into the hands of the English. The French fleet was ruined, and French merchantmen were driven from the seas. British vessels, including those of New York and New England, now obtained the carrying-trade of those islands; also, under safe conducts and flags of truce, that of Santo Domingo.

Freneau, Philip, "the Poet of the Revolution;" born in New York City, Jan. 2, 1752; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1771. He was of Huguenot descent, and evinced a talent for rhyming as early as the age of seventeen years, when he wrote a poetical *History of the Prophet Jonah.* He was in the West Indies during a part of the Revolutionary War, and while on a voyage in 1780 was captured by a British cruiser. After his release he wrote many patriotic songs, and was engaged in editorial duties, notably on the Democratic *National Gazette,* of Philadelphia, the organ of Jefferson and his party. He continued to edit and publish newspapers. His productions contributed largely to animate his countrymen while struggling for independence. An edition of his *Revolutionary Poems, with a Memoir and Notes,* by Evert A. Duyckinck, was published in New York in 1865. His poetry was highly commended by Scotch and English literary critics. He died near Freehold, N. J., Dec. 18, 1832.

Friendly Association. In the middle of the eighteenth century the descendants of William Penn, who succeeded to the proprietorship of Pennsylvania, departed from the just course pursued by the great founder of the commonwealth towards the Indians and the white people, and exasperated both by their greed and covetousness. The Indians were made thoroughly discontented by the frauds practised on them in the purchase of lands and the depredations of banditti called traders. So much had they become alienated from the English that in 1755 the Delawares and others joined the French in making war. For some time the Friends, or Quakers, had observed with sorrow the treatment of the Indians by Thomas and John Penn and the traders, and, impelled by their uniform sympathy with the oppressed, they formed a society in 1756 called the Friendly Association for Regaining and Preserving Peace with the Indians by Pacific Measures. The society was a continual thorn in the sides of the proprietors and Indian traders, for the active members of the association watched the interests of the red men with keen vigilance, attended every treaty, and prevented a vast amount of fraud and cheating in the dealings of the white people with the natives. Charles Thomson, afterwards secretary of the Continental Congress, was a very efficient co-worker with them, making truthful reports of the proceedings at treaties, and preventing false or garbled statements. The Friendly Association continued until 1764.

Friends, Society of, otherwise known as Quakers, claim as their founder George Fox (*q. v.*), an Englishman; born in Drayton, Leicestershire, in 1624. The first general meeting of Friends was held in 1668, and the second in 1672. Owing to the severe persecution which they suffered in England, a number of them came to America in 1656, and landed at Boston, whence they were later scattered by persecution. The first annual meeting in America is said to have been held in Rhode Island in 1661. It was separated

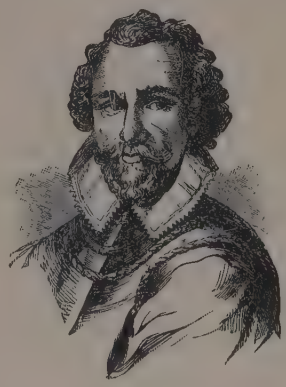
from the London annual meeting in 1683. This meeting was held regularly at Newport till 1878, since when it has alternated between Newport and Portland, Me. Annual meetings were founded in Maryland in 1672, in Pennsylvania and New Jersey in 1681, in North Carolina in 1708, and in Ohio in 1812. The

QUAKER EXHORTER IN COLONIAL NEW ENGLAND.

Friends have no creed, and no sacraments. They claim that a spiritual baptism and a spiritual communion without outward signs are all that are necessary for men. They believe in the Old and New Testaments as the Word of God, and, therefore, accept the atonement and sanctification. Belief in the "immediate influence of the Holy Spirit" is said to be the most prominent feature of their faith. They have monthly meetings, embracing a number of local meetings. They also have quarterly meetings, to which they send delegates, and these latter may deal with cases of discipline and accept or dissolve local or monthly meetings. The highest body, however, is the yearly meeting, to which all other meetings are subordinate. The Friends in the United States are divided into four bodies, known as the Orthodox, Hicksite, Wilburite, and Primitive. The first mentioned greatly exceeds the others in strength. In 1910 there were reported 1,325 ministers, 832 meeting-houses, and 91,161 members. The reports of the other branches showed: Hicksites, 97 ministers, 214 meeting-houses, and 18,560 members; Wilburites, 47 ministers, 47 meeting-houses, and 3,880 members; and Primitives, 10 ministers, 4 meeting-houses, and 171 members. See QUAKERS.

Fries, JOHN, rioter; born in Bucks county, Pa., in 1764. During the window-tax riots in Northampton, Bucks, and Montgomery counties, Pa., in 1798–99, Fries headed the rioters, liberated several prisoners whom the sheriff had arrested, and in turn arrested the assessors. Fries was arrested and tried on the charge of high treason, pronounced guilty, and sentenced to be hanged in April, 1800. President Adams issued a general amnesty which covered all the offenders.

Frobisher, MARTIN, navigator; born in Doncaster, Yorkshire, England, about 1536; was a mariner by profession, and yearned for an opportunity to go in search of a northwest passage to India. For fifteen years he tried in vain to get pecuniary aid to fit out ships. At length the Earl of Warwick and others privately fitted out two small barks of 25 tons each and a pinnace, with the approval of Queen Elizabeth, and with these he sailed from Deptford in June, 1576, declaring that he would succeed or never come back alive. As the flotilla passed the palace at Greenwich, the Queen, sitting at an open window, waved her hand towards the commander in token of good-will and farewell. Touching at Greenland, Frobisher crossed over and coasted up the shores of Labrador to latitude 63°, where he entered what he supposed to be a strait, but which was really a bay, which yet bears the name of Frobisher's Inlet. He landed, and promptly took possession of the country around in the name of his Queen. Trying to sail farther northward, he was barred by pack-ice, when he turned and sailed for England, bearing a heavy black stone which he believed contained metal. He gave the stone to a man whose wife, in a passion, cast it into the fire. The husband snatched the glowing mineral from the flames and quenched it in some vinegar, when it glittered like gold. On fusing it, some particles of the precious metal were found. When this fact became known a gold fever was produced. Money



MARTIN FROBISHER

was freely offered for fitting-out vessels to go for more of the mineral. The Queen placed a ship of the royal navy at Frobisher's disposal, and he sailed, with two other vessels of 30 tons each, from Harwich in 1577. instructed to search for gold, and not for the northwest passage. The vessels were laden with the black ore on the shores of Frobisher's Inlet, and on the return of the expedition to England a commission was appointed to determine the value of the discovery.

Very little gold was found in the car-

FROBISHER BAY, THE SCENE OF HIS EXPLORATIONS.

goes, yet faith was not exhausted, and Frobisher sailed in May, 1578, with fifteen ships in search of the precious metal. Storms dispersed the fleet. Some turned back, two of them went to the bottom of the sea, and three or four of them returned laden with the worthless stones. Frobisher had won the honor of a discoverer, and as the first European who penetrated towards the Arctic Circle to the 63d degree. For these exploits, and for services in fighting the Spanish Armada, he was knighted by Elizabeth, and in 1590–92 he commanded a squadron sent against the Spaniards. In 1594 he was sent with two ships to help Henry IV. of France, and in a battle at Brest (Nov. 7) he was mortally wounded.

Froebel, JULIUS, author; born in Griesheim, Germany, July 16, 1805; educated in his native country. He came to the United States in middle life and was naturalized; and in 1850 went to Central America as correspondent of the New York *Tribune*. In 1857 he returned to Germany. He was the author of *Seven Years' Travel in Central America, Northern Mexico, and the Far West of the United States; The Republican*, etc. He died in Zurich, Nov. 6, 1893.

Frolic, THE. See WASP, THE.

Frontenac, FORT, a fortification built by Frontenac in 1673 at the foot of Lake Ontario, at the present Kingston. After the repulse of the English at Ticonderoga (July 8, 1758), Col. John Bradstreet urged Abercrombie to send an expedition against this fort. He detached 3,000 men for the purpose, and gave Colonel Bradstreet command of the expedition. He went by the way of Oswego, and crossed the lake in bateaux, having with him 300 bateau-men. His troops were chiefly provincials, and were furnished with eight pieces of cannon and two mortars. They landed within a mile of the fort on the evening of Aug. 25, constructed batteries, and opened them upon the fort at short range two days afterwards. Finding the works untenable, the garrison surrendered (Aug. 27) without much resistance. The Indians having previously deserted, there were only 110 prisoners. The spoils were sixty cannon, sixteen mortars, a large quantity of small arms, provisions and military stores, and nine armed vessels. On his return, Bradstreet assisted in building Fort Stanwix, in the Mohawk Valley, on the site of Rome, Oneida county.

Frontenac, LOUIS DE BUADE, COUNT DE, colonial governor; born in France in 1620; was made a colonel at seventeen years of age, and was an eminent lieutenant-gen-

eral at twenty-nine, covered with decorations and scars. Selected by Marshal Turenne to lead troops sent for the relief of Canada, he was made governor of that province in 1672, and built Fort Frontenac (now Kingston), at the foot of Lake Ontario, in 1673. He was recalled in 1682, but was reappointed in 1689, when the French dominions in America were on the brink of ruin. With great energy he carried on war against the English in New York and New England, and their allies, the Iroquois. Early in 1696 an expedition which he sent towards Albany desolated Schenectady; and the same year he successfully resisted a land and naval force sent against Canada. (See KING WILLIAM'S WAR). He afterwards repulsed Phipps at Quebec. This was followed by an expedition against the Mohawks in 1696; and he led forces in person against the Onondagas the same year. Both expeditions were successful. Frontenac was the terror of the Iroquois, for his courage and activity were wonderful. He restored the fallen fortunes of France in America, and died soon afterwards in Quebec, Nov. 28, 1698.

Frontier Posts. By the Treaty of 1783 Great Britain agreed that the Great Lakes should form the northern boundary of the United States, and that all British troops in United States territory should be withdrawn. On the ground that the United States had not complied with that part of the treaty that debts due to British subjects were to be paid, Great Britain continued to hold the forts at Ogdensburg, Oswego, Niagara Falls, Erie, Sandusky, Detroit, Mackinac, etc., and did not withdraw the troops until 1796.

Front Royal, BATTLE AT. On May 23, 1862, General Ewell fell with crushing force, almost without warning, upon the little garrison of 1,000 men, under Colonel Kenly, at Front Royal. Kenly was charged with the protection of the roads and bridges between Front Royal and Strasburg. His troops were chiefly New Yorkers and Pennsylvanians. Kenly made a gallant defence, but was driven from the town. He made another stand, but was pushed across the Shenandoah. He attempted to burn the bridge behind him, but failed, when Ewell's cavalry in pursuit overtook him. Kenly again gave battle in which he was severely wounded, when 700 of his men, with a section of rifled 10-pounders and his whole supply train, fell into the hands of the Confederates.

Frost, CHARLES, pioneer; born in Tiverton, England, in 1632; came with his father to America, who settled on the Piscataqua River in 1636. Frost was a member of the general court from 1658 to 1659, and a councillor from 1693 to 1697. He was accused by the Indians of having seized some of their race for the purpose of enslavement and was killed in 1697.

Frost, JOHN, author; born in Kennebunk, Me., Jan. 26, 1800; graduated at Harvard in 1822; was the author of *History of the World; Pictorial History of the United States; Book of the Army; Book of the Navy,* etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 28, 1859.

Frost, JOHN, soldier; born in Kittery, Me., May 5, 1738; was a captain of colonial troops in the Canadian campaign of 1759, and lieutenant-colonel at the siege of Boston in 1775. In 1776 he was promoted to colonel and served under General Gates until Burgoyne's surrender, when he was ordered to Washington's army and participated in the battle of Monmouth and other engagements. After the close of the war he was appointed judge of the court of sessions for York county, Me. He died in Kittery, Me., in July, 1810.

Frothingham, RICHARD, historian; born in Charlestown, Mass., Jan. 31, 1812; was proprietor of the Boston *Post*, and was several times elected to the legislature; mayor of Charlestown in 1851–53. Among his publications are *History of Charlestown; History of the Siege of Boston; The Command in the Battle of Bunker Hill; Life of Joseph Warren; Rise of the Republic,* etc. He died in Charlestown, Mass., Jan. 29, 1880.

Fry, JAMES BARNET, military officer; born in Carrollton, Green co., Ill., Feb. 22, 1827; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1847. After serving as assistant instructor of artillery at West Point, he was assigned to the 3d Artillery, then in Mexico, where he remained till the close of the war. After doing frontier duty at various posts, he was again instructor at West Point in 1853–54, and adjutant there in 1854–59.

On March 16, 1861, he was appointed assistant adjutant-general, and later in the same year became chief of staff to Gen. Irwin McDowell. In 1861–62 he was on the staff of Gen. Don Carlos Buell. He was appointed provost-marshal-general of the United States, March 17, 1863, and was given the rank of brigadier-general, April 21, 1864. General Fry registered 1,120,621 recruits, arrested 76,562 deserters, collected $26,366,316, and made an exact enrolment of the National forces. He was brevetted major-general in the regular army, March 13, 1865, for "faithful, meritorious, and distinguished services." After the war he served as adjutant-general, with the rank of colonel, of the divisions of the Pacific, the South, the Missouri, and the Atlantic, till 1881, when he was retired from active service at his own request. He was the author of *Final Report of the Operations of the Bureau of the Provost-Marshal-General in 1863–66; Sketch of the Adjutant-General's Department of the United States Army from 1775 to 1875; History and Legal Effects of Brevets in the Armies of Great Britain and the United States, from their origin in 1692 to the Present Time; Army Sacrifices; McDowell and Tyler in the Campaign of Bull Run; Operations of the Army under Buell;* and *New York and Conscription.* He died in Newport, R. I., July 11, 1894.

Fry, JOSEPH, military officer; born in Andover, Mass., in April, 1711; was an ensign in the army that captured Louisburg in 1745, and a colonel in the British army at the capture of Fort William Henry by Montcalm in 1757. He escaped and reached Fort Edward. In 1775 Congress appointed him brigadier-general, but in the spring of 1776 he resigned on account of infirmity. He died in Fryeburg, Me., in 1794.

Fry, JOSEPH, naval officer; born in Louisiana, about 1828; joined the navy in 1841; was promoted lieutenant in September, 1855; resigned when Louisiana seceded; was unable to secure a command in the Confederate navy, but was commissioned an officer in the army. In 1873 he became captain of the *Virginius*, known as a Cuban war steamer. His ship was captured by a Spanish war vessel, and he, with many of his crew, was shot as a pirate in Santiago de Cuba, Nov. 7, 1873. See FILIBUSTER.

Fry, JOSHUA, military officer; born in Somersetshire, England; educated at Oxford, and was professor of mathematics in the College of William and Mary, in Virginia. He served in public civil life in Virginia, and in 1754 was intrusted with the command of an expedition against the French on the head-waters of the Ohio. He died at a place at the mouth of Will's Creek (now Cumberland), Md., while conducting the expedition, May 31, 1754. He had been colonel of the militia (1750) and a member of the governor's council. When Frye died, the command of the expedition to the Ohio was assumed by George Washington, who had been second in command.

Frye, JAMES, military officer; born in Andover, Mass., in 1709; served in several local offices, and in the army at the capture of Louisburg in 1755. At the opening of the Revolution he commanded the Essex Regiment (Massachusetts), taking an active part in the battle of Bunker Hill. He afterwards commanded a brigade of the army investing Boston. He died Jan. 8, 1776.

Frye, WILLIAM PIERCE, legislator; born in Lewiston, Me., Sept. 12, 1831; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1850; and became a lawyer. He served as a mem-

WILLIAM PIERCE FRYE.

ber of the Maine legislature in 1861–62 and in 1867; was mayor of Lewiston in 1866–67; attorney-general of Maine in 1867–69; representative in Congress in 1871–81; was elected to the United States Senate in 1881, 1883, 1888, 1895, 1901, and 1907; and was its president *pro tem.* in 1896–1900 and in 1901–11. For a number of years he was chairman of the Senate committee on commerce. In 1898 he was appointed one of the commissioners to negotiate a treaty with Spain, and afterwards ably defended the treaty in committee and on the floor of the Senate. In recognition of his services in behalf of peace the legislature of Maine set apart a day for him to become a guest of the State. He died in Lewiston, Me., Aug. 8, 1911.

Fryer, JOHN, Orientalist; born in Hythe, England, Aug. 6, 1839; graduated at Highbury College in 1860; professor in Alfred University, Hong-Kong, in 1861; professor of English literature in T'ung-Wen College, Peking, in 1863–65; for many years connected with the Chinese government in an official capacity. Professor Fryer published a large number of books, essays, and reports in the Chinese language, and was professor of Oriental languages and literature in the University of California from 1896. He published a full account of the Buddhist missions in America, under the title *The Buddhist Discovery of America 1,000 Years before Columbus*, and upwards of 100 books in the Chinese language at Shanghai. See HUI SHEN.

Fteley, ALPHONSE, engineer; born in France in 1837; came to the United States in 1865; was appointed chief engineer of the Aqueduct Commission of New York in 1888. He was identified with the construction of many engineering projects, including the Croton Aqueduct, the tunnel under the East River, New York, etc. He died in Yonkers, June 11, 1903.

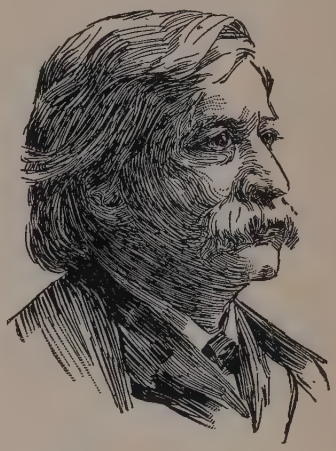
Fugitive Slave Laws. In 1793 an act was passed by Congress for the rendition of fugitive slaves. It provided that the owner of the slave, or "servant," as it was termed in the act, his agent or attorney, might seize the fugitive and carry him before any United States judge, or before any magistrate of the city, town, or county in which the arrest was made; such magistrate, on being satisfied that the charges against the fugitive were true, should give a certificate to that effect, which was a sufficient warrant for remanding the person seized back to slavery. Any person in any way obstructing such seizure or removal, or harboring or concealing such fugitive, was liable to a penalty of $500. For some time the law attracted very little attention, but finally this summary violation of the right of personal liberty without a trial by jury, or any appeal on points of law, was denounced as dangerous and unconstitutional; and most of the free-labor States passed acts forbidding their magistrates, under severe penalties, to take any part in carrying this law into effect. It became a dead letter until revived in 1850.

The domestic slave-trade increased the liability of free persons of color being kidnapped, under the provisions of the fugitive slave act of 1793. A petition was presented to Congress in 1818 from the yearly meeting of Friends at Baltimore, praying for further provisions for protecting free persons of color. This had followed a bill brought in by a committee at the instigation of Pindall, a member from Virginia, for giving new stringency to the fugitive slave act. While this bill was pending, a member from Rhode Island (Burritt) moved to instruct the committee on the Quaker memorial to inquire into the expediency of additional provisions for the suppression of the foreign slave-trade. Pindall's bill was warmly opposed by members from the free-labor States as going entirely beyond the constitutional provision on the subject of fugitives from labor. They contended that the personal rights of one class of citizens were not to be trampled upon to secure the rights of property of other citizens. The bill was supported by the Southern members and a few Northern ones; also by Speaker Henry Clay; and it passed the House of Representatives by a vote of 84 to 69. Among the yeas were ten from New York, five from Massachusetts, four from Pennsylvania, and one from New Jersey. It passed the Senate, after several important amendments, by a vote of 17 to 13. Meanwhile some of its Northern supporters seem to have been alarmed by thunders of indignation from their con-

stituents, and when it reached the House it was laid on the table, and was there allowed to die.

One of the acts contemplated by Mr. Clay's "OMNIBUS BILL" (*q. v.*) was for the rendition of fugitive slaves to their owners, under the provision of clause 3, section 2, article 4, of the national Constitution. In September, 1850, a bill to that effect was passed, and became a law by the signature of President Fillmore. The bill was drawn up by Senator James M. Mason, of Virginia, and in some of its features was made very offensive to the sentiments and feelings of the people of the free-labor States. It provided that the master of a fugitive slave, or his agent, might go into any State or Territory of the republic, and, with or without legal warrant there obtained, seize such fugitive, and take him forthwith before any judge or commissioner, whose duty it should be to hear and determine the case. On satisfactory proof being furnished the judge or commissioner, such as the affidavit, in writing, or other acceptable testimony, by the pursuing owner or agent, that the arrested person "owes labor" to the party that arrested him, or his principal, it was made the duty of such judge or commissioner to use the power of his office to assist the claimant to take the fugitive back into bondage. It was further provided that in no hearing or trial under the act should the testimony of such alleged fugitive be admitted in evidence; and that the parties claiming the fugitive should not be molested in their work of carrying the person back "by any process issued by any court, judge, or magistrate, or any person whomsoever"; and any citizen might be compelled to assist in the capture and rendition of a slave. This last clause of the act was so offensive to every sentiment of humanity and justice, so repugnant to the feelings of the people of the free-labor States, and so contrary to the Anglo-Saxon principle of fair-play, that, while the habitual respect for law by the American people caused a general acquiescence in the requirements of the fugitive slave law, there was rebellion against it in every Christian heart. It was seen that free negroes might, by the perjury of kidnappers and the denial of defence be carried away into hopeless slavery. This perception of possible wrong caused several free-labor States to pass laws for protecting their colored population. See ABLEMAN *vs.* BOOTH; PERSONAL LIBERTY LAWS; SLAVERY, for full text of the Fugitive Slave Law.

Fuller, MELVILLE WESTON, jurist; born in Augusta, Me., Feb. 11, 1833; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1853; became a lawyer in his native city; removed to Chicago in 1856, where he built up an important practice. He was a member of the legislature, and a delegate to several Democratic national conventions. He was chief-justice of the Supreme Court of the United States from Oct. 8, 1888, till his death in Sorrento, Me., July 4, 1910.



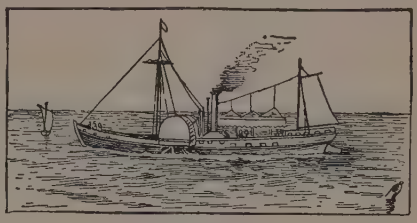
MELVILLE WESTON FULLER.

Fuller, SARAH MARGARET, MARCHIONESS D'OSSOLI, author; born in Cambridge, Mass., May 23, 1810; at the age of seventeen read French, Italian, Spanish, and German fluently; became a teacher in Boston in 1835; and, two years later, in Providence, R. I. She formed classes for young ladies in Boston for training in conversation, and the next year (1840) became editor of the *Dial*, the organ of the TRANSCENDENTALISTS (*q. v.*), to which she contributed articles on the social condition of women. In 1844 she became literary editor of the New York *Tribune*. Miss Fuller travelled in Europe, and,

visiting Italy in 1847, she married the Marquis d'Ossoli. In 1850, returning to her native country with her husband and child, the vessel was wrecked on the southern coast of Long Island, and all three were drowned, July 16, 1850. Her writings are held in the highest estimation, and have made a deep impression upon features of social life in America.

Fulton, JUSTIN DEWEY, clergyman; born in Earlville, N. Y., March 1, 1828; graduated at the University of Rochester in 1851, and then studied at the theological seminary there. In 1863–73 he was pastor of Tremont Temple, Boston; in 1873–75 of the Hanson Place Baptist Church, in Brooklyn; later he founded the Centennial Baptist Church in Brooklyn, and was its pastor for several years. He then gave up church work and devoted himself to writing and speaking against the Roman Catholic Church. His publications include *The Roman Catholic Element in American History; Woman as God made Her; Show Your Colors; Rome in America; Charles H. Spurgeon our Ally*, etc. He died in Somerville, Mass., April 16, 1901.

Fulton, ROBERT, inventor; born in Little Britain, Lancaster co., Pa., in 1765; received a common-school education; became a miniature painter; and, at the age of twenty, was practising that profession in Philadelphia, by which he made



FULTON'S CLERMONT

enough money to buy a small farm in Washington county, on which he placed his mother. Then he went to England; studied painting under Benjamin West; became a civil engineer; and made himself familiar with the steam engine, then just improved by Watt. He devised various machines, among them an excavator for scooping out the channels of aqueducts. He wrote and published essays on canals and canal navigation in 1795–96. He went to Paris in 1797, and remained there seven years with Joel Barlow, studying languages and sciences, and invented a torpedo. This he offered to the French and English governments, but both rejected the invention, and in December, 1806, he arrived in New York. He went to Washington, where the models and drawings of his torpedo made a favorable impression. In 1807 he perfected his steamboat for navigating the Hudson, having been aided by Robert R. Livingston, with whom he had been acquainted in Paris. Livingston had made experiments in steamboating as early as 1798, when he was granted the exclusive privilege of navigating the waters of the State by steam. Fulton was finally included in the provisions of the act, and in September, 1807, the *Clermont*, the first steamboat that navigated the Hudson, made a successful voyage from New York to Albany and back. She travelled at the rate of 5 miles an hour. See LIVINGSTON, R. R.

ROBERT FULTON.

At this time, Fulton regarded his torpedo as the greater and more beneficial invention, as he believed it would establish the "liberty of the seas." The government, in 1810, appropriated $5,000 to enable him to try further experiments with his torpedo; but a commission decided against it, and he was compelled to abandon his scheme. Steam navigation was a success. He built ferry-boats to run across the North (Hudson) and East rivers, and built vessels for several steamboat companies in different parts of the United States. In 1814 he was appointed by the government engineer to superintend the construction of one or more floating batteries. He built a war steamer (the first ever constructed), which he called the *Demologos*. She had a speed of 2½ miles an hour, and was named *Fulton the First*, was taken to the Brooklyn navy-yard, and there used as a receiving-ship until January, 1829, when she was accidentally blown up (see TORPEDOES). Fulton died in New York, Feb. 24, 1815. See HUDSON-FULTON CELEBRATION; STEAMBOAT.

FULTON'S TORPEDO.

Fundamental Constitutions. The proprietors of the Carolinas, which included the territory of what was afterwards the colony of Georgia, wishing to establish an aristocratic government, in feudal form, employed the Earl of Shaftesbury and John Locke to frame one. They completed the task in March, 1669, and named the instrument "Fundamental Constitutions." It provided for two orders of nobility; the higher to consist of landgraves, or earls, the lower of caciques, or barons. The territory was to be divided into counties, each containing 480,000 acres, with one landgrave and two caciques. There were also to be lords of manors, who, like the nobles, might hold courts and exercise judicial functions, but could never attain to a higher rank. The four estates—proprietors, earls, barons, and commoners—were to sit in one legislative chamber. The proprietors were always to be eight in number, to possess the whole judicial power, and have the supreme control of all tribunals. The commons were to have four members in the legislature to every three of the nobility. Every form of religion was professedly tolerated, but the Church of England only was declared to be orthodox. In the highest degree monarchical in its tendency, this form of government was distasteful to the people; so, after a contest of about twenty years, the absurd scheme was abandoned. See CONNECTICUT, FUNDAMENTAL ORDERS OF.

FULTON'S BIRTHPLACE.

Funding System, EARLY. On Aug. 4, 1790, an act was adopted for funding the public debt of the United States. It authorized the President of the United States to borrow $12,000,000, if so much was found necessary, for discharging the arrears of interest and the overdue instalments on the foreign debt, and for paying off the whole of that debt, could it be effected on advantageous terms; the money thus borrowed to be reimbursed within fifteen years. A new loan was also to be opened, payable in certificates of the domestic debt, at their par value, and in Continental bills of credit, "new tenor," at the rate of $100 for $1. The act also authorized an additional loan, payable in certificates of the State debts, to the amount of $21,500,000; but no certificates were to be received excepting such as had been issued for services and supplies during the war for independence. For payment of the interest and principal on the public debt—the foreign debt having the preference, and then the Continental loan—a pledge was made of the income of the existing tonnage and import duties, after an annual deduction of $600,000 for current expenses. The faith of the United States was also pledged to make up all deficiencies of interest. The proceeds of the sales of Western lands then belonging to, or which might belong to, the United States, were specially and exclusively appropriated towards the discharge of the principal. For superintending these loans and for the general management of the public debt, the old Continental system of a loan-office commission in each State was continued. The funding system was very beneficial to the country. The result of its satisfactory operation on the business of the nation was the re-establishment of commerce. See FINANCES, UNITED STATES.

Funston, FREDERICK, military officer; born in Ohio, Nov. 9, 1865; attended the Kansas State University, but did not graduate; became a newspaper reporter in Kansas City in 1890; botanist of the United States Death Valley Expedition in 1891; and special commissioner of the Department of Agriculture to explore Alaska, with a view of reporting on its flora, 1893–94; joined the Cubans in 1896 and served in their army for a year and a half. At the beginning of the war with Spain he was commissioned colonel of the 20th Kansas Volunteers, which he accompanied to the Philippines, where he subsequently made an exceptionally brilliant record. On March 31, 1899, he was the first man to enter Malolos, the Filipino insurgents' capital. On May 2, 1899, President McKinley promoted him to brigadier-general in the newly organized volunteer service, on the recommendation of Generals Otis and MacArthur, for signal skill and gallantry in swimming across the Rio Grande at Calumpit in the face of a heavy fire from the insurgents, and establishing a rope ferry by means of which the American troops were enabled to make a crossing and to successfully engage the insurgents. On May 2, 1900, while making a personal reconnoissance up the Rio Grande de la Pampanga he discovered a perpendicular ladder leading up a cliff crowned with a dense forest. Beside the ladder hung a rope which, when pulled, rang an alarm bell in the woods back of the precipice. Deeming these appearances suspicious, he ascended the ladder and at the summit found many large wooden cases filled with documents comprising a great number of the archives of the insurgents, including all the correspondence of Aguinaldo from the time of his earliest communications with Dewey down to the flight

FREDERICK FUNSTON.

from Malolos, and also including Aguinaldo's personal letter-book, with press copies of his correspondence. These were all forwarded to Manila. On March 23, 1901, he captured AGUINALDO (*q. v.*), and on the 30th following was commissioned brigadier-general in the regular army. In 1906 he rendered valuable service in maintaining order in San Francisco after the earthquake and fire. After the occupation of Vera Cruz, Mexico, by a United States naval force under Rear-Admiral Fletcher, on April 21, 1914, he was appointed commander of the United States army sent there, and had charge of the civil government under martial law. He became a major-general Nov. 13, 1914.

Furman, RICHARD, clergyman; born in Esopus, N. Y., in 1755. While still a child his father removed to South Carolina. He became a minister in the Baptist Church before he was of age, and was such an ardent patriot during the Revolution that Lord Cornwallis offered a reward for his capture. Mr. Furman was a member of the first constitutional convention of South Carolina. Furman University in South Carolina was named in his honor. He died in Charleston, S. C., in 1825.

Furnas, ROBERT WILKINSON, born in Miami county, O., May 5, 1824; removed to Nebraska in 1855; appointed colonel of the 2d Nebraska Cavalry during the Civil War; elected governor of Nebraska in 1873; president of the Nebraska Historical Society and of the Nebraska Pioneers Society, also grand master of the Order of Odd Fellows and of the Masonic Society.

Fur-Seal Fisheries. See FISHERIES, AMERICAN.

Fur-trade. While the English-American colonies remained dependents of Great Britain, they derived very little advantage from the extensive fur-trade with the Indians, for the Hudson Bay Company absorbed nearly the whole of the traffic. It was contention between the French and English colonists for the control of this trade that was a powerful element among the causes that brought on the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR (*q. v.*). In 1762 a fur company was organized in New Orleans for carrying on the fur-trade extensively with the Western Indians. It was started by the director-general of Louisiana. A trading expedition was fitted out, and under the direction of Pierre Ligueste Laclede, the principal projector of the enterprise, it went to the Missouri region, and established its chief depot on the site of the city of St. Louis, which name was then given to that locality. There furs were gathered from the regions extending eastward to Mackinaw, and westward to the Rocky Mountains. Their treasures went in boats down the Mississippi to New Orleans, and thence to Europe; or up the Illinois River, across a portage to Lake Michigan, and by way of the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence to Montreal and Quebec.

Early in the nineteenth century, fur-trading posts had been established on the Columbia River and other waters that empty into the Pacific Ocean. In 1784 JOHN JACOB ASTOR (*q. v.*), an enterprising young German merchant of New York, embarked in the fur-trade. He purchased furs in Montreal and sold them in England; after the treaty of 1795 he shipped them to different European ports. In this trade, chiefly, he amassed a fortune of $250,000, when he embarked in a scheme for making a great fur depot on the Pacific coast. He was then competing with the great fur companies of the Northwest, under a charter in the name of the American Fur Company, for which he furnished the entire capital. Mr. Astor made an earnest effort to carry on the business between the Pacific coast of America and China, founding the town of Astoria at the mouth of the Columbia River. Through the bad faith of a business partner in 1813, that establishment was sold for a nominal sum and placed under British control. After that Mr. Astor carried on his operations in the region of the Rocky Mountains, with his chief post at Mackinaw. Alaska, acquired in 1867 by purchase, opened a new field for the American fur-trade. The furs from that region are mainly those of the fur-seal; there are also those of the beaver, ermine, fox, otter, marten, and other animals. From 1870 to 1890 the monopoly of the trade was in the hands of the Alaska Commercial Company of San Francisco, Cal. In the latter year the government granted the right of tak-

ing fur-seals to the North American Commercial Company for a yearly rental of $60,000 and $7.62½ for each seal-skin. Canadian sealing-vessels were, for several years, illegally engaged in the indiscriminate slaughter of the seals, threatening their extinction. In 1889 some of these vessels were seized by United States revenue-cutters, thus giving rise to the Bering Sea controversy with Great Britain. See ALASKA; ANGLO-AMERICAN COMMISSION; FISHERIES.

Fusang, or **Fuh-Sang,** the name of the country visited by Buddhist monks in the fifth century, supposed to be Mexico. See HUI SHEN.

Fuss and Feathers. A political nickname applied to Gen. Winfield Scott.

Futhey, JOHN SMITH, historian; born in Chester county, Pa., Sept. 3, 1820; admitted to the bar in 1843, and was district attorney for five years. In 1879 he became presiding judge of the district. He is the author of many historical works, including *Historical Collections of Chester County; Historical Address on the One Hundredth Anniversary of the Paoli Massacre;* etc. He died in 1888.

Fyffe, JOSEPH, naval officer; born in Urbana, O., July 26, 1832; entered the navy as midshipman, Sept. 9, 1847; served on the *Cumberland* and the bomb-ship *Stromboli* in the war with Mexico; was a volunteer in the Grinnell arctic expedition of 1856; served throughout the Civil War, taking part in the attack on Fort Fisher, the destruction of the Confederate blockade-runner *Ranger*, in the operations near Dutch Gap Canal, etc. He died in Pierce, Neb., Feb. 25, 1896.

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